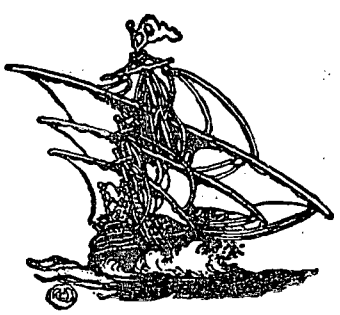
THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

MAY 15, 1924



Immigration
A Look Ahead

Toward Europe — *Edith Terry Bremer*
Toward Japan — *Galen M. Fisher*

Spring Books

The Country Community — *E. C. Lindeman*
British Labor Leaders — *Paul U. Kellogg*
Three Problem Children — *Jessie Taft*
Thinking with Hobhouse — *Joseph K. Hart*
Romain Rolland's Gandhi — *Bishop Fisher*

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A Glimpse Ahead

"SHOULD Young People Study Themselves?" Students—the term is, of course, merely academic jargon for young people, your young sons and daughters and friends who are going through high school and college. They study everything listed in the catalog, but the most important thing is not listed—themselves. How personalizing education got some of the kinks and handicaps out of a group of young college men and women, how it holds out hope of forefending some of the all-too-frequent student catastrophes in the way of nervous break-downs and mental disorders is Professor Donald A. Laird's story. The author is a member of the faculty of Yale University and will tell of his suggestive experience with a group of young men and women who read their texts in the third person—for that is the way texts are written—but discussed them in the first. "Is it an exaggeration," he asks, "to say that your education is successful in proportion to the understanding it gives you of yourself; or, that life is rich and of most fruitfulness in proportion to the personal knowledge of those who live it?"

"TO play in the band as drummer-boy for the army of social workers, that is one thing I should like to do."—A sentence this from a recent letter by Dr. Samuel McChord Crothers, who is writing an engaging essay for us in support of just that text. Back of the essay is an interesting personal experience which we must keep a secret among the Survey family.

Dr. Crothers had been reading all sorts of novels of American life when he fell upon Alexander Johnson's Adventures in Social Welfare. And the contrast set Dr. Crother's feelings and ideas tumbling over themselves in an eager flood of warmth and fellowship—so much so that he took his pen in hand and wrote a letter of appreciation to Uncle Alec—so much so that we have persuaded him to put his feelings and ideas on paper and play the drum at the head of our June Graphic.

S. K. RATCLIFFE sailed last week for England after his annual swing around the circle. It is not too much to say that no lecturer from over seas is on such rattling good terms with his hearers. There is a clarity, a charm, a penetration, a deep friendly bond of understanding between him and those who turn out so surely as he comes to town. This year Mr. Ratcliffe has been talking about Ramsay MacDonald and His Government, and whether it was to the business men of the Hungry Club of Pittsburgh, a university group at Madison, or the Canadian Club in Toronto, the response was electrical. The month Mr. Ratcliffe reached America the Labor Government had come into power and he introduced its personnel to us in an article in The Survey. "Ramsay MacDonald's Goverment" will have been in power five months on Mr. Ratcliffe's return, and in a series of three articles to appear in the July, August and September Survey Graphics, he will size up "The Labor Government in Action."

The first of these articles will deal with the British labor policy towards India—the release of Gandhi, the entrance of his followers into political action, and the foreshadowings of dominion status.

A VISITING day at school in which there is no embarrassment, either for pupil or teacher or visitor; where a class of twelve and thirteen-year-olds say what is in their minds, where the teacher enjoys the comments—and where the visitor is not present. That is Dr. Goldenweiser's "Civilization as Children See It," to appear in the June Graphic. It is a frankly stenographic report of a class in anthropology at the Walden School, in which the young inheritors of our culture discuss what civilization is—and it is also, incidentally, a picture of a "new" school in action.

WHO said childhood was the happiest time of life? Some crabbed grown-up who wished he were young again because age was too much for him. As a matter of fact, childhood is a time of hair-trigger emotion, of passionate ups and downs, of uneasy balance between happiness and gloom. Dr. Ira S. Wile continues his sketches of Children and This Clumsy World by discussing the emotional life of boys and girls, under the title, The Volcanic Years.

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THE SURVEY

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The Gist of It

IT IS THE CUSTOM of not a few primitive peoples to burst into wild ritual dances at the time of spring planting. The Senate, confronted with an immigration bill and a murmur from the Japanese ambassador, seems to have been seized with a like seasonal fury. But instead of cherishing the young and tender shoots of international friendliness which might be discerned here and there, it methodically pranced on them, beating meanwhile the tom-toms of "national honor."

AFTER which exhibition of maturity and civilization, it becomes the painful duty of the onlooker to discover what is likely to happen next. What, in human terms, would be the consequences of the new quota bill which so sweepingly vindicates our inalienable right to mind our business and let the world go hang?

THOUGH the Japanese aspects of the pending legislation have engaged nearly all the attention of the daily press, the lives of many more people would be affected—at least in the immediate future—by the new European quotas. This phase is explored by Mrs. Bremer (p. 207), who has been working in the field of immigration and foreign community service for more than fifteen years—with the United States Immigration Commission and the National Board of the Y. W. C. A., where she now holds the office of executive secretary of the department for work with foreign-born women.

TO INTERPRET the Japanese situation, The Survey called on the Rev. Galen Fisher, executive secretary of the Institute for Social and Religious Research, who brings to this problem the perspective gained in 21 years residence in Japan as senior secretary of the Y. M. C. A. (p. 209)

WE NEED hardly introduce Mr. Lindeman (pp. 222, 240), or Mr. Galpin, economist in charge of rural life studies for the Department of Agriculture (p. 224), or Allen T. Burns, director of the National Information Bureau and an ex-president of the National Conference of Social Work (p. 225).

TWO interesting questions are raised by Dr. Emmons (p. 227). Who is responsible for the present health of the "saleslady"? What can we do about it? Dr. Emmons is director of the Harvard Mercantile Health Work.

THE LIVELY discussion of rural health problems in Arkansas which The Survey printed under the heading Save the Country Baby, in the issue of December 15, 1923, was the first contribution from Dr. Frances Sage Bradley. A second follows in this issue (p. 229); we hope there will be many more; there are few leaders in country health work and many who are anxious for leadership.

HERBERT C. PARSONS, deputy commissioner of probation for the state of Massachusetts, has assembled some of the long-range case histories of which social workers stand always in need as a check on the activities of the movement (p. 231).

A SHEAF of comments on Dr. Cabot's stimulating article Veracity in Social Work and a rejoinder from the author (p. 254).

MISS ROBINSON, who approaches psychiatric social work from the angle of a thoughtful caseworker (p. 233), is associate director and supervisor of the department of case work in the Pennsylvania School of Social and Health Work.

ANOTHER Philadelphian, Dr. Rubinow (p. 234) has but recently contributed to The Survey a painstaking analysis of Medical Factors in Family Case Work (March 15, 1924). The comment here is part of a paper read at the All-Philadelphia Conference.

APPALACHIAN culture is almost the oldest unmixed element in our American civilization. Mr. Estabrook, who records (p. 238) some discussion of ways to preserve and enrich it, is connected with the Eugenics Record Office of the Carnegie Institute of Washington.

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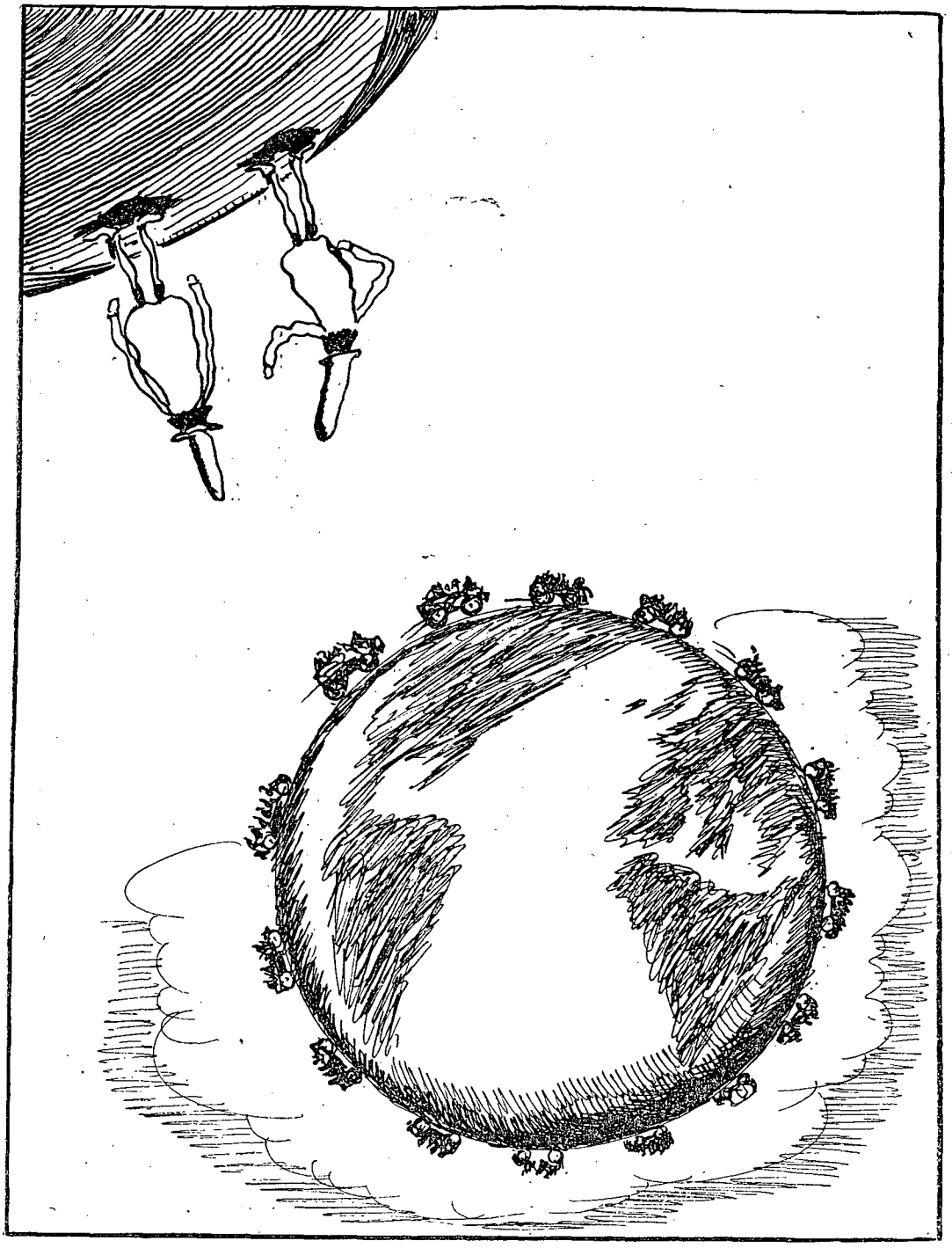

Hendrik Willem Van Loon

MAY MADNESS: A DIALOGUE ON MARS

What are all those people on earth doing?
They are going!
Where?
Nowhere. Just going!

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THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

May 15
1924

Volume LII
No. 4

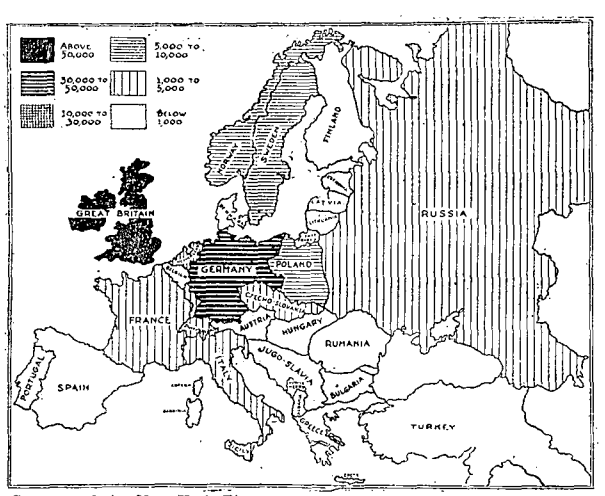
Immigration: A Look Ahead

I. Some Human Consequences of the Pending Bill

By Edith Terry Bremer

ON the same day we read that the immigration bill is likely to reach successful adjustment, "if a way can be found to exclude Japanese while maintaining the ordinarily courteous conduct which ought to characterize all the actions of the United States government," we also read that a proposal to establish a graduate school of international relations at Johns Hopkins University is near attainment. The school would "promote" "greater understanding and knowledge of all the branches of international life of a world fellowship, where scientific and economic facts are bringing nations to many forms of interdependency."

American thought is coming to realize the inescapable economic interdependencies. And the day would seem to be drawing nearer when the nation will turn about and embrace the equally inescapable relations of the political realms. But if the Immigration Bill becomes law, we shall have a clear indication of how far we are from perceiving the international character of a great many of our serious human problems.



Courtesy of the New York Times

THE PROPOSED EUROPEAN QUOTAS (HOUSE BILL)

Immigration and emigration are inherently an international business. No set of immigration laws can be smoothly, justly, and humanely administered, which are not built upon an international philosophy in regard to this vast human phenomenon. The Immigration Bill has no discernible social philosophy. If it becomes law, in spite of its rigidly mechanical devices for execution and its laudable intent to prevent unnecessary distress to immigrants in certain instances, it is bound to increase the exploitation of immigrants, to create new strife among groups already domiciled here, to bring disaster to individuals, and to be as irritatingly difficult to administer exactly as our immigration laws have ever been.

To date of going to press, there is still hope that a courageous President will veto this bill, as on three separate occasions before, other courageous Presidents vetoed the literacy test bill on the ground that a proposal to reduce the number of immigrants to be admitted each year should not, in method, act as a public contradiction of cherished American principles. On every fundamental premise, quite apart from the unnecessary hurt to the sensibilities of the people of Japan, this new bill strikes at important social attitudes upon which our democratic thought and our social institutions have been built. If passed, it will stand before the world as the expression of responsible thought in America upon the controversial theories as to the relative worth of nationalities. It is claimed that the assumptions of the bill are justified by sociological and biological considerations. But upon these premises competent scientists vigorously disagree. The "Nordic superiority" myth which has been floating about the halls of Congress for a long time, for which many congressmen have felt a sneaking friendliness while reluctant to recognize it in public, has suddenly be-

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come the basis of the immigration policy of what is still the greatest "receiving country" in the world.

What has happened in Washington, what hitherto opposing views have mysteriously reached a compromise, it is not the purpose of this article to discuss. Nor is it intended to give any detailed analysis of the provisions of the bill. Its diplomatic, political and economic consequences have been widely discussed by the newspapers. The purpose of this article is to show how a law based on assumptions both unscientific and unsocial would also carry vital human consequences. The proposal to admit annually, from each nationality, a number equalling 2 per cent of the number resident in the United States in 1890 would halt the migration from many countries in a mid-way stage. With these, as with all other nationalities for a hundred years, immigration follows a slow process: first the breadwinners come, then the young women, then young families, and finally the older people.

THE most serious effect of the bill will not be felt immediately, because it runs back of visible things into men's minds. The ultimate effect upon the structure of international comity, which is held together by what good will and understanding there is between the "bread and butter" people of the nations, will be positive and deep. The change of feeling will be as vital in Europe as it could possibly be in the Orient, and will be translated into behavior in a greater variety of ways.

It is not from the desire of a country like the United States to reduce the volume of its annual human intake, that disillusionment and lasting bitterness will result. Every nation understands that, and more or less sympathizes with it. Representatives of the very countries which the bill now proposes to cut off have repeatedly expressed an understanding of America's rising alarm over the number of immigrants. The resentment—for which, probably, no adequate release will for a long period be found—rises from the thinly veiled discrimination, which fastens the stigma of social incompetence, of cultural inferiority, upon the object of the average individual's most cherished social loyalty: his nationality.

We of the "native American stock" (the white American stock, at least) have never suffered such an attack; most of us have not the sensitive perception to realize what that means. Discrimination—social, economic and political—has been one of the social diseases of Europe. The influence of its adoption into American policy can hardly help working new harm in Europe, and will spread swiftly throughout the several million Europeans domiciled here.

THE International Labor Office estimates that the migration of people at the outbreak of the world war amounted to 5,250,000 a year. Two million at least could be said to be leaving home for the first time. The static character of great populations, holding them in traditional localities for centuries, is broken up. The development of great business whose continued profit depends upon getting people to move about, together with profound changes in the economic life of nations, with the spread of industrialism, the contagion of new social ideas, changes in the relative political positions of various nationalities—all have brought the will to venture, and the facilities for doing so, within reach of the humblest folk. In the face of such stupendous social forces, changes in immigration legislation in a single country will neither stop the movements nor for a long period materially hinder them. The recurring springs of emigration will flow in other directions.

Those for whom strong human ties have already been established in America will not, in the main, go elsewhere. It is within this group that the most acute problems of adjustment will arise. That group is relatively large for each of the countries whose emigration has been established since 1890, since it is still in the pioneer or "single immigrant" stage, and has not fully become a migration of families and dependents. The House bill, by providing a non-quota class which would eventually admit wives, minor children and elderly parents of citizens, does offer an ultimate amelioration of this problem, and the conferees wrote this provision into the final draft of the bill.

The fresh emigration of Europe—those groups who have not yet begun migration to the United States—will undoubtedly turn toward South and Central America. Lacking the romantic tradition about these countries which has so long enhanced the lure of America in his mind, the emigrant will probably proceed with greater caution. But if the causes which drive them out of their own homeland continue Italians, Greeks, Armenians, Syrians, Hungarians, Russians and also Germans, will go in increasing numbers to Brazil, the Argentine, Chile, Peru, Uruguay and Paraguay. Colonies of these nationalities are already there, for, in the main, the South American countries are inviting Europeans to come, though each has its own methods for regulation.

Other movements will probably be directed through additional "labor treaties" between European governments themselves, such as those between Italy and France, France and Poland, Czecho-Slovakia and Poland. These are not true "immigration" as the term has been understood in America, but have more of the character of a "contract labor" system, to which American thought is opposed as an anti-social arrangement bound to work against the common welfare of all concerned.

The human consequences of a sudden stoppage in any established movement are serious. It is likely to result in personal disaster to the individuals whose lives have been shaped by the expectation of the continuance of the movement. The tragic plight of the half-a-million people caught in mid-migration on August 1, 1914, is an example. They could not go forward, they could not go back, and they had no legal claim to domicile or protection where they were. Exactly that situation, it may be hoped, will never happen again. And yet in the mental confusion and anxiety attendant on being thrown out of normal relations, the stoppage proposed for July 1, 1924, will have comparable results in the lives of a very great number of people. The difficulties created for individuals, even so many, cannot be put forward as a valid argument against restrictive legislation. But there is something wrong in the method and speed by which it is proposed to achieve that restriction.

The absurdly small quotas practically cut away from beneath their feet the foundation for the entire future of thousands of recent immigrants. Their original purpose in coming to America will have been made futile when their right to send home for their relatives is cut off. What will they do?

Even if the non-quota section of the House bill prevails, so that citizens are ultimately provided for, the problem of ruined hopes, defeated expectations, and permanently separated families, will not be greatly helped. A man not now a citizen must wait from three to five years before bringing

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over his wife. And what assurance has he that the law will not be changed again before that date, once more making all his expectations futile? The single man will, in most cases, have to go back to marry the girl before he can claim the citizen's right to have her admitted. The enormous expense will often prove prohibitive. Too often a girl's best chance to get into America will rest upon marriage with an American citizen; there may be a growing number of "citizens" who make a business of offering themselves for marriage at a good sum to a young woman whose parents try to solve her future by getting her to America where work can be found.

TAKE a single example. There are about 40,000 Latvians in this country, the majority being young men, for the immigration is comparatively new. How many of them are married and have families in Latvia is not known. A conservative estimate would fix the number of young men as 25,000. Outside of a group of 6,000 in New York, there are no established Latvian communities. The 25,000 are scattered over many states where work can be found. The Latvian quota would be 317 souls a year. Among the 25,000 residents, are several thousand citizens. According to the provision for preferential consular visé, the wives of those citizens would be given first place in the quota even under the Senate plan. How long will it take the 25,000 young men to establish themselves and to form homes here at the rate of 317 women from the old country each year?

Will these men, then, return home? They tell you they would if there was work to be had. Theirs is a new and ambitious country, but there is not enough work for all. Their problem, therefore, resolves itself into this: they cannot get work where their homes could be, and they cannot have homes where their work is. A few may move on to South America. But the world currents have swept this way for a long time, and it is not likely that the young men who have once tried the United States will go elsewhere.

There are three possible solutions for these men: to swell the army of permanently disestablished men; to take out citizenship papers as soon as possible, and become a floating citizenry with ties in two countries, keeping a working residence in the United States while supporting dependents in Latvia and departing on certificated leaves once or twice a year; or to let family ties slip, fall out of the habit of sending money home, save here for a new start, and marry a new wife when and where she can be found. As the line of least resistance, the third choice will probably be the way out for the majority.

A mass of inter-country social problems will develop. In Latvia, there will be deserted families, and non-support, serious enough in a country where the major cause of emigration is economic; a more acute poverty and the psychological ills that attend desertion will follow. In America, there will be the moral collapse of men who meant to be honest and loyal, together with a prevalence of that inner conflict that pursues a mind not at peace with itself, and creates a haunting sense of the insecurity for the future.

A practical difficulty, however, presents itself even here. Where will the young men find these hypothetical "new" wives? All the nationalities of recent immigration are represented here by far more men than women. Successive years of the migration process, following its usual course, would even this up. But those nationalities for whom that natural process is cut short by the new bill have not brought their young women here yet. The Latvian will probably marry German girls, as many speak the German language and the two peoples have a friendly tradition. But what can the Roumanian, the Greek, the Armenian youth do? Will they be able to marry girls of the "second generation?" The girl born and reared in America holds very different ideas from those of the old-country man. And more than that, her social views, bred by "Americanization," lead her to regard such an alliance as a step down. She would rather marry a "smart American fellah" than an old-country man though he may be the more honest and stable.

In the great industrial towns where the work is all man's work, such as in the steel cities; where the foreign unskilled worker comes—and moves on as fast as he can; where the immigrant population is fluid, and where the "industry" of the women in the permanently established communities is "keeping boarders," the moral conditions likely to develop will be exceedingly serious. One hesitates to brand any nationality, made up as each is of every variety of character, as more likely to fall into immoral ways than another. But it seems almost certain that those groups most affected by the limitation of immigration, will be forced into situations more unwholesome than those which naturally develop in frontier communities. And, it might be added, this very result of conditions created by American law will ultimately be laid up against the foreigner and his race.

Another social problem arbitrarily created is that of the growing community. The settled foreign community, resulting from an immigration which has long since left its early stages behind, will probably not be disturbed. But those aggregations which are about to take on the characteristics of a community will have their development checked, if not permanently prevented. The Latvians, in another five years, would probably have come together in a number of little nascent communities with a stable group life and interest—thrifty and anxious to get on to that universally desired goal of owning property. How can that happen now?

Industries know well the restlessness of the "single" immigrant. A high labor turnover decreases as a community grows. Cities which have seen foreigners coming in, at the call of some new factory, view with alarm the crowds of foreign men who don't know what to do with themselves on Sunday. A few months pass and the population mysteriously increases. Women of the new nationality are now and then noticed in the stores. Before Americans realize what has happened a new community has begun, self-respecting, hard-working, buying generous quantities of American furniture, glassware, pots and pans and shoes. There is an agreeable stimulus to local trade. Such processes can no longer come to pass, and American communities will not only be denied real assets of growth and trade, but will face a new problem of continuously unsettled, unsocialized "colonies" of foreign men.

WE must not overlook increases in the exploitation to which immigrants are always more or less subject. The bill aims to render the new law more enforceable than the old quota law, by making it rigid. But even a mechanically perfect system cannot nullify the forces that drive people out of their homelands. Efforts at illegal entry will inevitably multiply. Buying up passports (which is known to be going on as a regular business now) to be sold abroad to credulous and anxious immigrants, will be extended to

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include buying up certificates for temporary absence. The chances are that every sort of paper which an immigrant may need will be offered for sale.

A severe penalty is provided in the bill both for the perpetration of fraud, and for the alien found with fraudulent papers in his possession. Just how the immigrant is to be brought under a sentence of possibly ten thousand dollars or five years in prison before he actually becomes a resident of the United States is not clear. Would he be arrested at the consulate—or imprisoned at Ellis Island instead of being deported?

Perhaps the severest result to America itself will come from the reversal of normal assimilation processes. Assimilation is at bottom a purely psychological thing. Change the attitude of the alien, his desire to become assimilated, and these processes—so long familiar to us that we have failed to value them at their great worth—stop automatically. Among those of French Canadian descent in northern New England, and in the Spanish-speaking stock of Texas, we have a permanently unassimilated, bi-lingual society. Let the feeling of our European stock undergo a severe change, and we may have such groups everywhere.

Freedom leads groups as well as individuals to throw off self-consciousness. Heretofore foreign-language groups have slowly emerged from their intense consciousness of self into the realization that nationality does not matter in America. It neither helps nor hinders. That becomes, in fact, one of the miraculous things to them about America. In so many countries of Europe, no one goes about without carefully wearing his nationality. This immigration bill would throw the wholesome social evolution in America into violent reverse. The United States is made to declare for discrimination. Sensitiveness, rivalry, suspicion are bred by it. And that international good-will which experience in America has, in spite of individual discouragements, stored up for the immigrant—and which he has in turn spread abroad—is also jeopardized.

One wonders whether after all it is worth while to "save the country for posterity"—at the price of making it, for this generation, a much more difficult place to live in. The need of the past, and the hope of the future, is understanding and good-will between the people of the nations. It is the only foundation on which can be built a structure of cooperation for the good of all. This anti-social immigration philosophy will weaken that foundation for a long time to come. This nation may be "saved for posterity," but the rest of the world will go right on having a "posterity" too. It may be that our children will view matters in a different light. Perhaps posterity will not thank us after all.

II. The Possible Recoil in Asia

By Galen M. Fisher

WHEN The Survey asked me to write about the Immigration Bill and the Japanese reaction to it, I at once said that if I wrote at all it could not be as an advocate but simply as an expositor. The chief reason for this is because I believe increasingly that "reasoning together" is better than thrusting even a reasonable argument down the other man's throat.

As to the new Immigration Bill (H. R. 7995), and its effects on the Japanese and on America's relations with Japan, let me boil down the salient facts.

The bill provides that: "An immigrant not eligible to citizenship shall not be admitted to the United States unless such immigrant is a non-quota immigrant." Since the Japanese have been adjudged by the Supreme Court ineligible to citizenship unless born here, this clause amounts to an exclusion act against all Japanese except diplomats, students and transients.

It nullifies without warning the Gentleman's Agreement of 1908, by which Japan bound herself to give no more passports to laborers coming to the United States, and also to refrain from allowing many laborers to go to Mexico, lest they slip over the border.

The chief arguments offered in support of the clause are these:

1. The letter of Ambassador Hanihara protesting against the clause and referring to "grave consequences" was an insulting effort to intimidate America and dictate legislation on a domestic matter.
2. The Gentleman's Agreement is not a public enactment and it leaves to Japan the selection of immigrants to our territory; furthermore, it has not been strictly kept.
3. The anxiety of the Pacific Coast states can be allayed only by complete exclusion of Orientals.
4. If the problem were left to a diplomatic settlement, there would certainly be delay and compromise.

The chief arguments against the clause are these:

1. Sudden denunciation of agreements is un-American and a breach of good international manners.
2. Japan is perfectly willing to cooperate in excluding from the United States of America any or all of her nationals, if desired, but she asks that it be arranged either by agreement or by a law which puts Japan on a par with other nations, instead of by one expressly discriminating against her.
3. The Gentleman's Agreement ensures Japan's cooperation and it has been faithfully observed. If, as advocates of the objectionable clause hold, many Japanese steal across the border from Mexico even while Japan is cooperating by issuing few passports, is it not obvious that many more would steal across when Japan was piqued and not trying to cooperate?
4. The same end—virtual exclusion—could be attained, as Secretary Hughes has suggested, by making the 2 per cent quota provision apply to Japan as to all European nations. This would allow about 250 Japanese to enter annually.
5. The positive good will engendered by America's philanthropy after the earthquake and by decades of generous diplomacy, culminating in the Washington Conference, has been rudely shattered and is being replaced by distrust and ill-will and by contempt of our professions of fair-play and honorable dealing. American missionary enterprise, commerce and general influence in the Far East will all suffer.

Fat volumes of argument and slim pamphlets of fact have been published to uphold or demolish these arguments. From the facts a selected few will be pertinent here.

As to Japanese observance of the Agreement, it may be pointed out that between 1909, the year after the Agreement became operative, and 1923, the number of Japanese males leaving America (including Hawaii) was greater by 22,737 than the number entering, whereas the number of Japanese females entering was 38,883 more than the number

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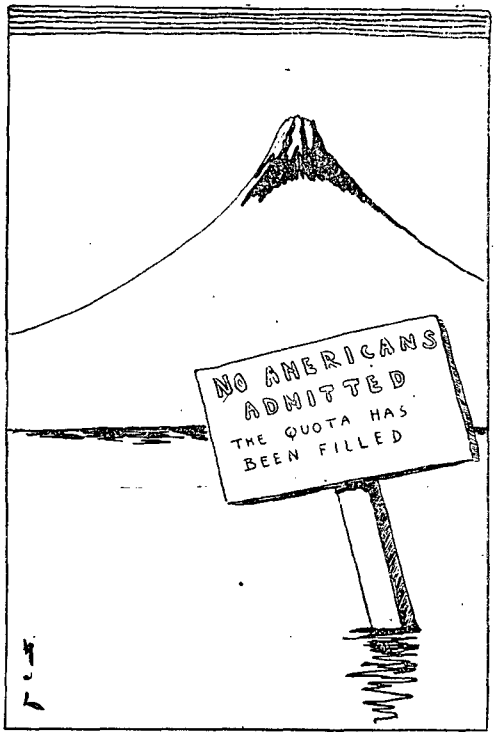
leaving. The net increase in continental United States was 8,681, or 578 a year, and the increase in Hawaii was 7,415. Furthermore, despite the youth of many of the immigrant women and their consequent maximum fertility, the total Japanese population in Continental United States increased only from 72,157 in 1910 to 111,010 in 1920. The excess of departures over arrivals during the three and a half years ending last December 31st was 4,207. It is hard to see how these figures indicate laxity by Japan in observing the Agreement.

It is, however, urged by some, that the thing to be feared is the rapid increase of Japanese by birth in this country. The rejoinder is that the influx of "picture" brides was stopped some time ago, and that there are few unmarried Japanese over 25 left to be supplied with brides from the old country: they will find their wives among American-born Japanese. And as to their reputed rapidity of child-bearing, it is well known that the birth-rate of every new immigrant stock tends to fall toward the American level.



Hendrik Willem Van Loon

TURN ABOUT IS FAIR PLAY

HOW are the Japanese people taking the action of Congress? They were painfully surprised when the House passed the offensive clause by such a majority, but they never doubted the Senate would dispassionately cut it out. Hence they have been dazed, incredulous and grieved. Japanese papers and publicists have shown unusual restraint in their comments, but both public and private cablegrams received from Tokyo indicate that a deep and ugly wound has been inflicted.

At first the indignation meetings were limited to Tokyo and Osaka, but late dispatches report that similar meetings have been held in many of the provincial centers. Our overwhelming gifts for earthquake relief had left the whole Japanese people almost oppressed by a sense of obligation too great to repay. Hence only the conviction of being positively wronged could drive them or any Orientals to protest against an act of their late benefactors. Not unnaturally some of them suspect that our Congress dared to spring its action because American gifts would probably make the Japanese ashamed to protest. On the contrary, the Japanese say they are merely counting on America's boasted loyalty to the square deal when they ask that the Gentleman's Agreement be terminated or substituted in gentlemanly fashion.

HOW far will the ripples spread from this stone thrown so jauntily by Congress into the Pacific? Farther than the thoughtless, insular American thinks, if he thinks at all about it. At the very least it will accentuate the slogan of "Asia for the Asiatics." That slogan has been heard in India, in China, and in the Philippines as well as in Japan. But they have been separate cries. There has been no united chorus of opposition to white intolerance and domination except by a few intellectuals. America's record toward the Far East has on the whole exempted her hitherto from their denunciation. But it is quite possible to exaggerate the sinister effects of this one act toward Japan, however discourteous. After making this reservation, the fact remains that it gives impetus to that consolidation of the darker races against the white nations which looms so ominously upon the world's horizon.

SHOULD anything still be done about the Immigration Bill? It will perhaps be out of conference between the committees of the Senate and the House and in the President's hands when this appears. Those who wish the President to sign the bill without change may deem it unnecessary to do anything. Those who oppose it but wish to see some alternative method of virtual exclusion adopted should let their senators and representatives know their mind and should also wire or write asking the President to veto the bill or secure its modification before signing.

The possible modifications suggested are that Japan be included under the 2 per cent quota system; or that Congress pass a joint resolution calling on the President to negotiate a stiffened Gentlemen's Agreement or an exclusion treaty; or that a provision be added authorizing the President to see if some method of exclusion satisfactory to Japan can be devised, leaving it to the President to put the bill into force only if his efforts in this direction prove futile.

A SURVEY of Race Relations on the Pacific Coast has been under way for several months, but it cannot be expected yet to throw light on either the immigration or the assimilation of Orientals. It was undertaken not to settle any problems over night, but to help the residents of the coast get at all the facts and examine their opinions and policies and relationships in the unveiled light of the sifted facts.

The best thing about this survey is that people of the coast are sponsoring it and are doing most of the work. Nor are the dice loaded. The five regional survey committees in the three states and British Columbia are made up of men and women of all sorts of viewpoints on racial, economic and political matters. The central executive committee is headed by President Ray Lyman Wilbur of Stanford. Labor and capital, church and college, women's club and farm bureau, pros and antis, are all represented and heartily back of the enterprise. The leaders on the Pacific Coast were eager to secure the cooperation of an unprejudiced scientific body and struck hands across the country with the Institute of Social and Religious Research. The institute fortunately secured Professor Robert E. Park as research director and J. Merle Davis as administrative director. From the outset Pro-

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fessor Park has made a point of getting specialists in the various universities of the coast to take specific pieces of research. In some cases they are setting their graduate students in sociology at the job, recognizing in it a rare chance to deal with living data. It is too early to say what may come of this survey, and Professor Park will be the only man capable at a later date of doing justice to it in all its ramifications, but even now discerning men on the coast believe it will throw real light on the permanent problems of race relations and will perfect the technique and create the desire for continuing the study of racial matters by the universities and other agencies in that part of the country most acutely sensitive to Japanese immigration.

Dental Clinics in Schools

FOR twenty years there have been dental clinics in the public schools of New York City. Compared to the problem which confronted them, their actual accomplishment is slight, since they are held in only 19 of 557 schools and reach a total of only some 15,000 children a year in an elementary school population close to a million. But the principle that there should be dental clinics in at least some of the public schools seemed as established a fact as that under ideal conditions, there should be in those same class rooms no children suffering from contagious diseases. Imagine, then, the surprise and consternation involved in a simple news item which appeared in the papers of February 13, to the effect that the Board of Education had abolished the clinics at its meeting the previous day. The motion was made by Dr. John A. Ferguson, the personal physician to the mayor, in the absence of several members of the board, and passed, with only one dissenting vote.

Investigation disclosed the fact that the abolition of school dental clinics was not a new fancy of Dr. Ferguson's. In May 1922, the Board of Education referred to him a recommendation of the Board of Superintendents that more clinics be installed, and in his report, presented the following October, he urged that the school clinics be abolished and that the school nurses refer children in need to dental treatment to their own dentists, or, if they were unable to pay private practitioners, to clinics of the Department of Health which should be re-located so as to serve the poor pupils of a group of schools.

"Are we not drifting into the idea of paternalism too deeply for our own good," he questioned in the report, "and destroying the obligations and responsibilities that parents owe to their children by lifting them onto the City and State?"

The Board of Education suspended action on this report, pending an opinion by the Oral Hygiene Committee of Greater New York, which comprises delegates from all the recognized dental societies of New York, with an aggregate membership of about 4,000. That committee, citing many medical authorities as to the importance of dental work to health and to the ability of children to profit by education, concluded that the only sound method of abolishing dental clinics would be to abolish the present pressing need for even more than the existing dental facilities, and urged that as rapidly as possible a system of dental inspection be adopted to inform parents of the actual conditions of their children's teeth and educate them to the point of effective action—maintaining the existing clinics until they should have been proved useless. After receiving this report the Board of Education declined to accept Dr. Ferguson's view until, suddenly presented again, it was passed in February, a year later, with little discussion.

The story is of importance outside New York as it illustrates the speed with which a political maneuver can upset overnight a system which has been built up with years of experience. It was also interesting in showing how firmly intrenched the movement for better child health had become. The announcement that the clinics were to be abolished brought speedy and vigorous protest from both educators and the medical profession—from the Public Education Association, the Public Health Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine, the United Parents Association, and the Oral Hygiene Committee. Under the weight of it and of numerous newspaper comments and of the active disapproval of several members who had not been present, the board re-considered.

TO the chorus of diverse sentiments brought in favor of dental clinics in schools, the Committee on Dispensary Development of the United Hospital Fund of New York City brought the firmly based testimony of a survey just completed on the dental facilities of the city. There are actually in New York less than half as many dentists as would be necessary to provide per capita treatment of four hours a year for all of the population. Between 75 per cent and 95 per cent of the school children have carious teeth. There are some 104 dental clinics, about half of which are under non-medical auspices, i. e., of settlements, churches, and the like, with a wide variety of scope and function. Aside from the 19 dental clinics actually in operation in the schools, where the jurisdictions of the board of education and health overlap, fifty complete dental units, which have been provided through the Board of Education by parent-teacher associations and other organizations, and which represent an investment of $100,000, stand unused waiting for appropriations from the city to provide the personnel to operate them.

A community dental program probably would place the center of prophylactic dental work in the schools, and of curative work in the hospitals. In connection with the latter category, the survey cites a remarkable plan in effect at the Presbyterian Hospital in New York City, which provides an oral examination and complete prophylaxis for each ward patient whose condition permits and an oral diagnostic service for all the departments and clinics of the hospital, with provision for any reparative or surgical work necessary to clear up disabilities at no additional cost to the patient except for x-rays and the use of the operating room.

These conditions may be compared with the recommendations of a survey of community dental service made by Michael M. Davis, Jr., and published in 1922 by Mr. Julius Rosenwald at whose request the study was made. This survey concluded that preventive dentistry cannot be expected to develop as an adjunct of private practice except for that small proportion of the population who have ample means. Preventive dentistry must be dealt with by public and semi-public facilities in dental institutions or in local or school clinics. A dental program must be considered as a part of a general child hygiene program. If facilities must be limited, it should be extended to the younger children first; it should assume the functions of general prophylaxis and hygienic instruction before cure. (*Continued on page* 258)

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The Common Welfare

G. STANLEY HALL died at his home in Worcester on April 24. He was 78 years old, and save for his writing, had lived in retirement since leaving the presidency of Clark University in 1920.

President Hall was a pioneer in many lines. He introduced the experimental study of psychology to America, opening the first psychological laboratory, at Johns Hopkins University. He founded the American Psychological Association; and was founder and editor of the American Journal of Psychology. He was a pioneer also in the introduction of various psychological movements to American students, notably the work of Freud and Jung. Unfortunately, he too frequently met the fortune of the pioneer, winning the disapproval of many who profited by his eager explorations. He was the virtual founder of the child-study movement in this country; and students of his have been at the forefront of this movement wherever it has taken on any serious form.

Dr. Hall's writings lay for the most part quite within the fields of his professional interests. He made large and permanent contributions to child study, education, psychology and the philosophy of education. A review of these writings and some comments upon his career will be found on pp. 181-183 of The Survey of November 1, 1923.

If we may divide constructive scientists into two general groups, namely, those who have incisive minds and who mark off some definite part of the frontier for their own intensive investigation, and those who have adventuresome, exploratory minds and go surveying considerable areas of the frontier, making many interesting discoveries by the way, then we shall have to put President Hall in the second group. He "ran on ahead." He had a tendency toward attempting more work than he could get done. He was often vague in his writings, and not infrequently more or less opaque. There are those who say, and others who will say, that his work brought no permanent results.

But they are, and they will be, mistaken. The future, alone, will reveal whether his name will be remembered in connection with any specific movement or bit of scientific discussion. But something of his spirit, and much of his adventuresomeness have already found place in our world; and the many interests that he helped to develop will remain as permanent elements in our intellectual and spiritual life. His recent autobiography, Life and Confessions of a Psychologist, is a lasting contribution to these interests.

WHILE the presses turn out this issue of The Survey delegates from more than thirty countries are talking peace at the fourth biennial conference of the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom. Some of these women on their way to Washington were welcomed at a public meeting in New York. There was eloquent evidence in what they had to say, and the way in which they said it, of the temperamental differences which make the task of establishing a new international order delicate as well as fruitful. But with all the differences between them, one thought broke through their halting English or French: It shall not happen again. Marcelle Capy (France) and Lucille du Jardin (Belgium) pled for American cooperation in the building of the new order: "It is not your money we ask for, it is your help in peace." The spirit of idealism in Germany spoke through Frau Heymann: "Though all the world should say peace is impossible I would still work and believe in peace." Efsaish Yussouf, from Turkey, dwelt on the conflict of civilizations rather than that of nations, and when she said that Turkey had her own civilization and did not want ours, but was forced to imitate it or cease to exist, one felt strangely the kinship among all the nationalities there present: a kinship based on a common love for the ways of the homeland, widely as those ways differed one from the other.

AMONG the many bills introduced, and lost, in the recent session of the New York Legislature was one which, its supporters believe, should be the next development of the laws for the suppression of commercialized prostitution. In 1915, New York made prostitution an offense, regardless of where it might be committed. The amendment now proposed to the same statute would declare to be a vagrant, both a person "who commits or offers or agrees to commit prostitution or sexual intercourse or other lewd or indecent act for hire," and a person "who pays or offers or agrees to pay, any money to another person as compensation for an act of sexual intercourse or other lewd or indecent act." Bringing the customer under the law is logical, for if an evil is to be suppressed, the law should be broad enough to include all those who participate in it. Few of the present statutes against existing evils—gambling, for instance—are so broad, and, partly perhaps for that reason, their suppression has not been accomplished.

Hearings on the proposed amendment disclosed one important body of recruits among its supporters. It was strongly advocated by various Woman's Party groups, who find in the existing law one of the numerous discriminations against their sex which they are anxious should be removed.

The Committee of Fourteen and other interested agencies argued that the amendment would further reduce commercialized vice, would bring many men suffering from venereal disease under the control of the Health Department and thus reduce the spread of those diseases, would reduce temptation to women and would remove the existing sex discrimination. Its opponents, including many officials whose duty it would be to enforce the proposed law, declared it to be unenforceable. This argument is one which has been raised against every similar law in the years past, but experience has proved

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that when public opinion has been sufficiently aroused to demand enforcement, ways and means have been found.

Two decades ago it was the general belief that prostitution was not only a necessary evil but one which could not be suppressed. The findings of the Chicago Vice Commission of 1910, and Dr. Flexner's Study of Prostitution in Europe, in 1914, mark the changing of public opinion. While prostitution has not been suppressed, it has, in most American cities, been repressed far more than was generally thought possible even by the optimists of the earlier days.

AFTER thirty-six years in the New York City schools, including six years as city superintendent, William L. Ettinger has been dropped from his position, by a six to one vote of the school board. Civic and educational organizations petitioned the board to retain him; the governor is said to have intervened; but the result was foreordained.

The issue was only remotely educational. The new superintendent is quite as much a schoolman as the retiring one. The issue was, first, political. Mayor John F. Hylan is reported to have said: "I would rather lose my right hand than have Ettinger stay." There had been ever so slight a disposition to question the divine right of the machine: that is now allayed. The schools will now rally to the support of the machine and of the Chief Machinists. Secondarily, that is, fundamentally, the issue was rooted in the industrial and business situation. Says one city newspaper: "Tammany is permitted to run New York City because, on the whole, its work is satisfactory to the business interests." Deeper than all else is the determination, shown in Lusk laws, Hirshfield "investigations," elimination of teachers with ideas and the use of informers in the schools, to keep all independent intelligence out of the system. This is the permanent problem in all our American schools. We become articulate over personal issues—as in the New York City situation: we show little interest in the permanent, underlying issue.

THE Manchester Guardian praises the Senate for showing "an excellent impatience to get on with the business of making civilization rather less a matter of sitting on a powder barrel than it is." Is the Guardian spoofing Mr. Lodge? Or is this an indication that the process of passing the buck on foreign affairs looks more impressive across the water than it does at home? This "excellent impatience" has sequestered for almost fourteen months two presidential proposals for adherence to the World Court and has weathered a flood of petitions. Fortunately for those who are willing to avoid responsibility the calling of conferences is a prerogative of the executive office, but adherence to international courts must receive the senatorial sanction. Late in March the House passed unanimously an amendment to the Naval Appropriation Bill which requested the President "to enter into negotiations with the Governments of Great Britain, France, Italy and Japan with the view of reaching an understanding or agreement relative to limiting the construction of all types and sizes of subsurface and surface craft of 10,000 tons standard displacement or less, and of aircraft." About the same time Senator Borah introduced in the Senate a resolution requesting the President to call a conference to consider the "economic problems now obtaining throughout the world, and also the further limitation of armament." This was followed on April 7 by a more elaborate resolution introduced by Senator Pepper advising the President to call a conference for the consideration of armaments, the codifying of international law, and "of plans for a world court, either through a further development of the present Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague or through the disassociation of the present Permanent Court of International Justice at The Hague from the League of Nations."

In his speech before The Associated Press, April 22, President Coolidge said, "I should favor the calling of a similar conference to achieve such limitations of armaments and initiate plans for a codification of international law, should preliminary inquiries disclose that such a proposal would meet with a sympathetic response." Presumably President Coolidge is now making those inquiries. The Senate also is inquiring and in special hearings before the Foreign Relations Sub-Committee, leaders in many of the nation's activities are urging American entry into the World Court. Will they lead to action? Or are these merely trial balloons to indicate how large a part peace should be given in the presidential campaign?

JOHN JOSEPH EAGAN was a business man in Atlanta, Georgia, and president of the American Cast Iron Pipe Company in Birmingham, Alabama. When he assumed the executive direction of that great manufacturing establishment he announced that his business policy would be based upon a literal interpretation of the teachings of Jesus. That announcement provoked a great deal of newspaper comment. He became suspect among his business acquaintences. This reaction surprised and perplexed him. He had made the announcement with characteristic simplicity. For him it was merely a reaffirmation of the discipleship to which from their youth most of his neighbors, like himself, were pledged. Although he made a financial success of his business through the application of his announced policy, he continued to the time of his death on March 30 to be regarded as eccentric. In its obituary review of his life, the Atlanta Constitution comments at length upon his "unique business ideals."

Oddly enough, since he was a member of a professedly Christian community, many of his activities, if not altogether unique, were so exceptional as to make them disquietingly conspicuous, though he was the shyest and most modest of men. His philanthropic support of education, as in the case of the Martha Berry school which he established, his gifts to the Y. M. C. A. and to his church were readily understood. But when at the outbreak of the war he said, "I don't want to come out of this war with money while other men have been dying in battle," when he voluntarily reduced rents on all of his large real estate holdings when rents throughout the country were soaring, men began to look upon him as a dangerous radical. This feeling was intensified by his persistently brotherly attitude toward his

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negro neighbors which led him to share in organizing the Commission on Inter-racial Cooperation, and his advocacy of the public ownership and development of the vast hydro-electric resources of Georgia, which he regarded as God's greatest material gift to the people of his state. At his direction, the first water-power map of Georgia was prepared by a firm of engineers. He was distressed to find that three-fourths of the population lived in sections where electricity was unobtainable at any price. He believed that the two million horsepower of electrical energy that was running to waste should be harnessed by the state to light the homes of the people and to lift the burden of unnecessary drudgery from their shoulders. To make individual profits out of this unique "gift of God" seemed to him altogether wrong.

INDEED, Mr. Eagan believed that the modern industrial system was un-Christian. During the war he devoted a great part of his energy to the conscripts as vice-chairman of the National War Camp Community Service. When the war was over, he was disposed to withdraw from business entirely. But he decided that this would be an evasion of duty. He felt called to make his relation to the cast iron pipe factory a demonstration of the meaning of Christianity in industry. He made himself in a very literal sense the servant of the management and men. The depth of his faith in the workability of his ideals is revealed in the codicil to his will which was executed a short time before his death.

I hereby give, bequeath and devise [it begins] ten hundred and eighty-five (1,085) shares of the common stock of he American Cast Iron Pipe Company, being all of my holdings of said common stock of said company to the members of the Board of Management and the members of the Board of Operatives of said American Cast Iron Pipe Company, jointly, and their successors in office in said boards, as trustees. [And it ends] It is my will and desire that said trustees in the control of said company, through the control of said common stock, shall be guided by the sole purpose of so managing said company as to enable said American Cast Iron Pipe Company to deliver the company's product to the persons, requiring it, at actual cost, which shall be considered the lowest possible price consistent with the maintenance and extension of the company's plant or plants and business and the payment of reasonable salaries and wages to all the employees of said company, my object being to insure "service" both to the purchasing public and to labor on the basis of the Golden Rule given by our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ.

To John Joseph Eagan, the Golden Rule was not an advertising slogan; it was the rule by which he walked humbly before the Lord and in self-effacing service to his fellow men.

IN two successive administrations, the Kentucky State Board of Charities has been under fire from the politicians. The fight under the present Democratic regime has been rather more bitter than that under the Republicans before them; the state legislature in both instances tried to throw the patronage of the board into political hands. The last Republican governor stood by the board, and it is hoped that the present Democratic incumbent will do likewise.

The present board was created four years ago to have charge of the state's charitable and penal institutions, and was given power to choose an executive agent on a non-political basis. For membership on the board some of the ablest and most public-spirited men and women in the state were chosen, and they have given service without stint. As executive agent, they selected Joseph P. Byers, whose social work experience had been gained in other states. His work won the commendation of impartial citizens, but certain political leaders who saw offices and positions slipping away from them raised the slogan "Kentucky for Kentuckians" and tried to dislodge Mr. Byers and regain control of appointments by bills making birth or long residence in Kentucky a requirement for holding office under the board. "The best for Kentucky" was the answer of the women's clubs and other socially minded groups who fought enthusiastically for the board and non-partisan appointment.

In one house of the legislature the board lost out; it was saved in the other by only a narrow margin. But the attack was repulsed; the board has greater strength and prestige than before, and is now to continue its useful work. It has without doubt been handicapped by the necessity of fighting repeatedly for its existence and integrity. It will not be able to accomplish all it should till it has a free field. There is, for instance, a proposed bond issue, $5,000,000 of which would be used for needed work on state institutions, which is meeting opposition based on the fear that the administration intends to use the money under an out-and-out spoils system. Many good citizens would vote for it if they were assured that the present board of charities would remain undisturbed.

SHALL we pay half a cent apiece for parks in Washington? That is suggested in the Park Bill offered in Congress at the suggestion of the Washington Committee of One Hundred on the Federal City—a body headed by Frederic A. Delano and sponsored by the American Civic Association. Working through nine well qualified sub-committees dealing with architecture, school sites, housing, transit, parks, and the like, this group has studied the present physical needs of Washington and the opportunities, still within reach, of making it increasingly beautiful and livable. Enough ground has already been lost through public indifference to the original plan of l'Enfant and the recommendations of the McMillan Commission in 1901 to emphasize sharply the need for prompt and persistent action.

The preliminary report of the committee, presented to a general conference in Washington last month deals with a wide range of recommendations. The committee unites, however, in urging that the park bill be the first point of attack. This would create a permanent park commission, composed of federal and district officials, with authority to purchase or condemn for park uses land both within and without the District (with suitable provisions for cooperation on the part of Virginia and Maryland). This obviously offers much more hope of consistent and adequate development than the present haphazard arrangement by which

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every individual park proposal has to run the gamut of separate action by Congress. The bill would authorize Congress to appropriate annually, for the commission's use, a sum not greater than one cent for each inhabitant of the continental United States.

Pilgrims to Washington from the said continental United States can at present get mighty little satisfaction out of the human exhibits at their capital city; it seems fair enough that they should at least have something really good in marble and greensward to show for their taxes.

THE Women's National Committee for Law Enforcement composed of the large women's organizations of the nation, meeting in convention in Washington in early April, ignored the earnest protestations of their husbands and brothers and went straight as a die for the political nub of the situation—law enforcement of prohibition. They decided to send to all political party conventions not only a request that law enforcement be included in the platforms of the parties, but to inform the platform makers that if their opinions are to be reckoned with, there will be "no change" in the definition of what constitutes intoxicating liquor. One half of one per cent is to remain the definition;—that was the mandate of the thousand women convening from California to Maine.

A politician noting this mandate declared that Lord Bryce had always said he feared the logical minds of women. "Charge against the Light Beer Brigade" was one of the slogans—"Law-Enforcement, mere lip-service won't do!" was another. Again and again it was declared that law enforcement was so basic that the women must go to the polls, and vote out and vote in parties on the issue. In short, this was a moral-political convention, of woman-covenanters with scant patience for any turnings back or compromises. The meeting was significant not only for its flat-footed declarations, but in its demonstration that here were not merely a few reformers kicking against the pricks but very evidently the great national formations of organized women putting their feet down.

ONCE in a distant heathen land it was decreed that in time of famine all apples should belong to the state. Whosoever should be caught taking an apple, be it from his own orchard, must pay the price with his head. The famine passed and the decree was almost forgotten. But one winter day two guards of the king saw a man in his own orchard stoop to pick something up from off the ground, and they seized him and carried him before the magistrate.

"He must have stolen an apple, your honor," they complained. "To be sure, we could not find it upon him—but surely he took something from the ground in his orchard."

"We must make an example of him," cried the magistrate. "Off with his head!"

In vain did the man protest that it was only a handful of snow that he had taken, which had melted in his hand; that it was winter and there were no apples on the ground in his orchard; that there was no famine in the land, and it would have been no crime for him to take his own apple, had one been there.

"Off with his head," repeated the magistrate. "We must make an example of him."

BY some such parable might one state the case of Joseph Baltrusaitis, a Lithuanian bartender of St. Louis, who went to Leavenworth on March 12 under sentence of two years' imprisonment for violation of the Espionage Act. It is alleged that in November 1920, Baltrusaitis gave a Communist pamphlet to an agent of the Department of Justice who came to him dressed in the clothes of a laborer, and engaged in a friendly conversation. This was interpreted as an act which violated the law by discouraging "the recruiting and enlistment of soldiers." But November 1920 was a whole year after the Armistice; no soldiers were being recruited; and Baltrusaitis, who neither reads nor speaks English claims that he was ignorant of the contents of the pamphlets, which were left with him by a Russian friend. The case has dragged through the courts till now, six years after the war, he enters Leavenworth long after the Espionage Act has been suspended, and some months after the last of those serving sentences under it have been freed by executive clemency. It seems reasonable to expect that President Coolidge will act promptly and favorably on the application for pardon which the American Civil Liberties Union has entered on his behalf, clearing the records of a case which illustrates with tragic absurdity the dangers of a stupid and anachronistic emotional gesture.

HIGH TEA will be served Toronto's guests at the National Conference of Social Work on the mid-conference Saturday: a pleasant reminder that the company will meet within His Brittanic Majesty's purlieus. Nor will such robust and gracious fare be found only at the more informal events of the week. The evening programs, for example, have that rightness of flavor and soundness of substance which one associates with damson jam and toad-in-the-hole. Grace Abbott on public protection of children; the Right Honourable Sir George E. Fisher, G. C. M. G., D. C. L., LL.D., on The Urge Forward; Jane Addams and Dr. René Sand on international cooperation for social welfare; Aaron Sapiro, Rev. Edwin V. O'Hare and E. C. Lindeman on the farmer and his ways; Dr. George E. Haynes and Major Moton on migrant negroes; Commissioner W. W. Husband and Deputy Minister W. J. Egan on immigration and assimilation; C. M. Bookman on the interrelation of social agencies; Mrs. Mabel Walker Willebrandt on prohibition enforcement—these may be trusted to strike a nice balance between the too-too-solid nourishment of a kaffeeklatsch in Allentown and the over-stimulating trifles of a thé dansant on Park Avenue.

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The Law Factory

WHEN in the course of human events laws and customs become established; what so important in a democracy as to keep them as they are? Evidently our revered colonial ancestors thought so. Having personally participated in a revolution they knew how dread a thing sudden change could be. Was it out of their experience that they guarded us against it?

Our system of elections with its two parties pitted against each other: our federal government, in which measures passed by the relatively transitory and irresponsible legislature must run the gauntlet of the more conservative and stable senate, then tremblingly appear before a President empowered to affirm or reject them, is a powerful instrument for immobility. State governments, modelled conscientiously after the same pattern, are efficient sub-stations of that round road which ends where it began.

Perhaps the most perfect example of how this works in little is the 1924 session of the New York State Legislature. As an achievement in the elimination of all change, either backward or forward, it makes a clear case for itself. This is the smooth path which has been prudently prepared for all proposed measures. A bill introduced into either the assembly or the senate receives its first check when it is referred to a committee; its second, when it is ordered back to be read before our representatives and referred to the committee on revision. If, after that, it is passed, it must go to the legislative body into which it was not originally introduced and the process of its original introduction is repeated there. If it also survives this ordeal it is given to the governor for his signature or veto; or if it is a city bill, to the mayor of the city which it concerns. There are in the senate 26 standing committees, and in the assembly 31; that is 57 committees in all. And each bill must face at least two of them, one in each house. Only on a message of necessity from the governor, or a vote to discharge the committee, can a bill escape from a committee unwilling to let it go.

The mortality of bills in committee is frightful! They die like flies! There is a legend that long ago 99 per cent of the foundlings committed to one of the New York City institutions died, and that this so harassed the nerves of those who had charge of them that a reform almost automatically set in. But nothing gets on the nerves of committee members. They revel in the slaughter of young and tender bills. The 1924 mortality was exceedingly high; for the Republican and Democratic voters of the state elected a senate of 51 members, 26 of whom were Democrats and 25 Republicans; and an assembly of 150 members, 87 of whom were Republicans and 63 Democrats, and a Democratic governor. Since the ousting of the Socialists a few years back, no third party has had any representation and all measures must be presented to the legislature by a member of one of the two parties. If a Republican introduced a bill into the Democratic senate, and it was seen as a party measure, it was inevitably defeated by the Democratic majority; whereas if it was introduced by a Democrat it almost certainly passed. But a Democratic measure that passed the senate must be sent to the Republican assembly, and there it met certain defeat, just as Republican bills passed originally by the assembly were defeated by the Democratic senate. In 1924 no distinctly party measure had a chance of passing both houses and going to the governor for signature. If the governor had acted always along strict party lines no Republican bill that might have slipped through the Democratic senate could have become a law except over his veto, which was quite impossible in 1924.

As an example Mr. Walker—the Democratic leader of the senate—introduced twenty-two bills all but three of which passed the Democratic senate; for one of them a duplicate bill from the assembly was substituted. When the session was over two of them—bills so popular that neither party would take the responsibility of going against them—had become law; four of them had reached the governor for his signature and eleven had been lost in the Republican assembly. With possibly three exceptions these were the most important bills, from the standpoint of social welfare, that were introduced during the session.

Now all important bills tend to become party measures because both parties are anxious for the particular backing which important bills provoke. So the only bills that have a fair chance to pass are those unimportant ones about which neither party cares much either way: those bills concerning property which an important minority in both parties back; those party measures on which a dicker is made, so many Republican votes on one bill being inconspicuously exchanged for so many Democratic votes on another; and those rare bills on which an informed public feeling runs so high that neither party dares go against it.

The Slaughter of the Innocents

And yet when you think of it every measure introduced is dear to somebody; each bill was framed because somebody thought New York State would be brighter and better for such a law! Three thousand four hundred and sixty-seven of these innocents were fed into the legislative hopper in the first quarter of 1924: 1,633 to the senate; and 1,834 to the assembly. To be sure some of these bills in the senate and the assembly were duplicates. But they were considered separately by each house. What has happened to them? From the standpoint of industry especially how much better off are the people—particularly the wage-makers who constitute the majority of them—for the expense of electing their 201 legislators and maintaining them at Albany together with the heavy overhead of the legislative session?

Take the senate as typical—merely because it considered fewer bills and was nominally of the governor's party.

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On the second of January, Mr. Dunnigan, a Democrat, introduced the first bill, a popular measure to continue such easement of the tenants' hard lot as had been afforded them since 1920. Like a dove of peace this beloved bill was passed by the senate, flew to the assembly and lit upon the governor's desk, where it was signed and promptly became a law on February thirteenth, for this was one of those rare bills so well known to the public that no one dared to make it a party measure. And then Mr. Reiburn, a Democrat, rapidly introduced 16 more bills, apparently of little vigor, since they died in the hands of the various committees to which they were referred. Then Mr. Dick, a Republican, followed with two unimportant bills regarding property and civil practice, which, since nobody cared about them either way, ultimately became law. Then Mr. Sheriden, a Democrat, introduced a bill to control the bank tax, which, backed by bankers of both parties, also became a law. Mr. Dunnigan made a second offering regarding buildings and repairs for public institutions, which failed to pass. Mr. Walker introduced the first of the Home Rule amendment bills, which ultimately became a law. Then Mr. Downing,, another Democrat, strove to amend nine sections of the Workmen's Compensation Law, an important measure in an industrial civilization which is trying to become a democracy, and failed in the attempt. Mr. Love, a Democrat, vainly desired action regarding the incorporation of the Ministers' Fund of the Reformed Church of America. And then Mr. Sheriden again came to the fore with another important bill, one designed to free the labor unions from the prohibition against monopoly. But this too went to its death in a committee in the assembly. And so ended the first day: 25 bills introduced of which five ultimately became law, an abnormally high average. Except the first bill, nothing important to the workers became law.

At the second sitting 28 more bills were introduced of which two, one concerning the technique of elections, and another—as popular and non-partisan as the rent control law—reducing the state income tax by 25 per cent became a law. This was not specially important to the wage-makers anyway since their incomes tend to be below the taxable minimum. Most of the bills of this session died in committees. One of them was an attempt to meet the housing shortage by the public provision of housing.

They Died a-Bornin'

The next session on January 8th was a slack day. Only 16 bills were introduced of which one, releasing some land in Dutchess County, ever became law. Among the dead were six bills introduced by Mr. Fearon, a Republican, which attempted to control motor-car accidents; one by Mr. Lacey, a Democrat, attempting to curb the use of the injunction in industrial disputes, as popular a bill with organized labor as could be drafted; and one by Mr. Reiburn and two by Mr. Sheriden to strengthen the Workmen's Compensation Law.

By January 9th the senate was getting into its stride: 29 bills were introduced, only one of which, that abolishing the office of Miscellaneous Reporter, ever reached the governor. Among the lost were Mr. Reiburn's bill for a Minimum Wage Board, and Mr. Straus' bill establishing a 48-hour week for working women,—two immensely important bills backed by social organizations throughout the state, passed by the Democratic senate, favored by the governor and killed in the assembly.

January 10 was an off day: 7 bills were introduced not one of which became law. Among the dead were Mr. Sheriden's five bills permitting women to qualify as jurors, and the bill for a Wage and Hours of Labor Conference introduced by Mr. Whitely, Republican, which might properly be laid at rest beside the two dead industrial bills introduced by Democrats the day before.

On January 11th the senate was reduced to one bill.

The Blessings of Obscurity

The 14th was better: 24 bills were introduced. Three reached the governor, one regarding the placing of park signs warning against hunting and fishing, another concerning a mortgage on the trust property of the Society of Friends, one continuing the life of a telegraph company—bills permitted to pass obviously because of their insignificance.

On January 15th they wrestled with 56 bills. One authorizing the Sanitary Commission of Hudson to lay out additional land for cemetery purposes was passed, as was also Mr. Reiburn's bill to reduce the waiting period after accident from 14 to 7 days before compensation was paid. Among the lost bills were those of Mr. Farrell, Democrat, requiring the town and village employes to have one day's rest in seven.

January 16th saw 19 bills introduced, all but two of which died in committee; among them were two further attempts to strengthen the Workmen's Compensation Law. On January 17th there were two stillborn bills. January 18th one bill which reached the governor. On January 21st 52 bills were brought forward: one to permit a town in Suffolk County to establish a park; one regarding the trustees of the Ten Broeck Free Academy; one to issue $45,000,000 worth of bonds to pay bonuses to the World War Veterans became law. There were no industrial measures among them. On January 22nd 49 were introduced: not one important to industry was passed but among the dead were two designed to strengthen the Workmen's Compensation Law.

On the 23rd of January 27 bills were introduced. The one to give the commission more time to examine the city and federal military laws was passed. On the 24th two bills were put in neither of which became law. On the 25th four bills were presented. One, to place the state lands of Beekman County under the control of the State Hospital Commission, was passed. On January 28th 29 bills came up. One, consolidating the Temple Beth-El and the New Synagogue; one incorporating the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America; one regulating the use of nets in the Niagara River; one controlling the taking of pickerel and pike, became law. It is interesting to observe our care for and protection of fish in contrast with the fact that the bill establishing an 8-hour day for hospital employes and another attempting to improve the Workmen's Compensation Law were lost.

On January 29th 23 were introduced. One concerning corporations was passed. On the 30th 44 came up. 11 of them, most of which concerned changes in judicial procedure, went to the governor. On the 31st 15 were introduced. One fixing the probable life of a "work or object for which state debt shall be contracted" became a law. The attempt to repeal the motion picture censorship was lost.

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So much for January: 462 bills introduced.

February carried on the milling of January and March continued the whirl. Bills concerning compensation, hours, wages, one day's rest in seven and the rest rose and fell, brought in by one party and killed by the other as they had during the first thirty days. But the care of our voteless inhabitants of earth, air and stream which only began in January, swelled and grew during the following months. The needs of deer, bear, racoons, squirrels, waterfowl, rabbits, plover and the rest were almost prayerfully considered. The legislature seemed particularly tender toward fish, and whenever it had smothered some measure for the protection of workers, it turned lovingly to the thought of bass or pickerel.

By the end of the session 1,633 bills had been introduced into the senate. All the bills which passed the senate were sent to the assembly, all those passed by the assembly came to the senate. 211 more were introduced into the assembly than into the senate—bills which were summarily killed in committee and never came to a vote at all or bills which coming to vote were defeated. But the proceeding in the two houses was practically alike and the bills identical.

As the session drew near its latter end the struggling bills so multiplied in the hands of the committees that their carefree neglect was changed to determined slaughter, but in spite of diligent effort some 500 did manage to escape onto the floors of the legislative chambers. It is said that the senate was held to an 80-hour session killing or passing the escaped bills and that a saturnalia equally wild occurred in the assembly. From the standpoint of a citizenship earning its daily bread in the industries characteristic of our stage of civilization, the assembly orgy was the more destructive of the two—and was accomplished by the more disgraceful means. Here the bill restraining the use of the injunction in labor dispute went down to defeat: here the bill for the state conservation and development of water power, perhaps the most important step that could have been taken in the direction of controlling the force that drives industry in the interest of those who operate it, was finally killed; here the bill to establish a 48-hour week for working women, supposed to have been saved by the sacrifice of the bill to create a minimum wage commission was defeated by the old discredited method of getting the last doubtful advocates who were pledged to vote for it, so drunk that they couldn't answer the roll call.

By April 10th—(the legislature came to an end in the first dark hours of the 11th) there were 238 bills in the hands of the governor, and as many more were thrust upon him in the last few hours. As this goes to press many of them still wait to see whether they will be signed or not. 62 bills had actually become law and 32 had been voted down on the floor of the senate or assembly, but something like five-sixths of the bills had been allowed to die in the committees to which they were referred. 'Tis a great game if played by the rules!

Normalcy

And so the 1924 legislature met and deliberated and passed on with even less accomplishment than is usual. The balance between the two parties was so nearly perfect that the ideal of non-vibration was almost attained. What was already established stayed, what was struggling for establishment was properly crushed—the system of checks relentlessly functioning. The only industrial bill of any consequence that became a law was that reducing the waiting period in compensation cases from fourteen to seven days.

Meanwhile let the 48-hour bill, the waterpower bill, the minimum wage bill and the rest, wrap the drapery of their couches around them. But it is a comfort to know that the happy little fish in our rivers and lakes are adequately protected, and that our law makers, though willing that boys should work at night and women most of the time, take thought for the welfare of yellow perch!

When in the course of human events laws and customs become established, what so important in a democracy as to keep them so? MARTHA BENSLEY BRUÈRE

Without Quota

WITH THE HEIGHTENING of the barriers against European immigration and the exclusion of Asiatics, the stream of unskilled labor rises across the Mexican border. Mexican immigration is not subject to quota restrictions. In the copper mining camps of Arizona and the Southwest, Mexican labor is rapidly displacing the earlier European miner. The sons of the Mayas, the Zapotecs, and the Yaquis are filtering into the Pennsylvania steel districts; one sees them along the railroads, following the main highways northward into Canada; as appears in the following article, they are responding to the demands of the Minnesota sugar beet industry by groups of hundreds and thousands. As they come, they arouse the apprehension bordering upon hostility with which we customarily regard the stranger, especially when he differs from us in language and color of skin. This apprehension is reflected in this brief summary of the survey made by the St. Paul Community Chest. If this movement continues Minnesota might well study the experience of the California Housing and Immigration Commission in protecting such migrant groups from economic exploitation and from unsanitary housing. Nor can the needs of the children for schooling be ignored.

If the socially minded men and women of America could bring themselves to think of these visitors from the south as potential interpreters of America to their people back home, the sense of apprehension might yield to a happier consciousness of opportunity.

THE city of St. Paul is receiving an influx of Mexicans which may result in a few years in a large Mexican district, far from the border as it is. They have been brought from Texas by sugar corporations to work in Minnesota beet fields. Their transportation north is paid, but they are not supplied with return fares. So when the beet season ends, about the first of November, the untrained and unskilled Mexican faces a Minnesota winter without work or the prospect of it. He packs his few belongings, leaves the shack which has served as his home on the farm, and comes to St. Paul in the hope of finding work in the packing plants or some other industry. Often he is too late, as seasonal unemployment has already set in.

The colony in St. Paul and South St. Paul, numbering four hundred men, women and children this past winter, has been studied by the St. Paul Community Chest. Most of them came to St. Paul for the first time last autumn and a number have already been dependent upon charitable agencies. The United Charities has given relief, the Baby Welfare Society has tried to keep their babies well in dark basements and narrow lofts, the Americanization Committee has taught them English, and Neighborhood House, a settlement, has served as their social center.

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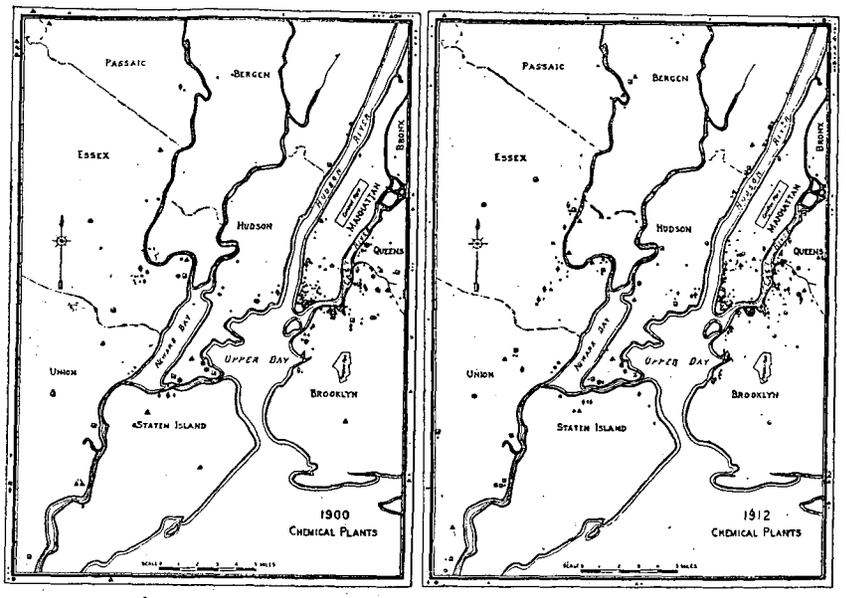
Fortunately a majority of the Mexican workers are single men, although the sugar companies prefer to bring families north when they can get them, on the ground that married men are steadier—and their wives and children can help them in the beet fields. The farmer, according to the contract, must provide housing for the Mexicans. The corporation guarantees Mexican accounts at local stores. It is in this way that they secure food and clothing during the work season.

The Mexican receives $23 an acre for his summer's work. If he cares for ten acres, an average, he has earned $230 at the end of five months. He is paid in three installments; first, when he completes blocking and thinning the beets; second, when he has finished the hoeing about August 15; and third, when he has cut the tops from the beets and placed them in piles ready to be hauled to the mill. The company deducts his store bills from his pay.



These maps illustrate four stages in twelve years' migration of chemical industries within the New York area

Leaders among the Mexicans admit that their people, while industrious and anxious to prosper, have not acquired the thrift of European nationalities. Many of them have never handled money before coming to the United States. They do not realize its value and spend it foolishly.

"With spendthrift habits and ignorance of the English language," the Community Chest survey reports, "the Mexicans are easy victims for unscrupulous country storekeepers. Mexicans have been sold silk shirts for work shirts and fancy canned goods for the necessities of life."

Representatives of the Minnesota Sugar Corporation, which operates a mill at Chaska, near St. Paul, declare that they have contracted for 15,000 acres of beets during the coming season. They say it will require 1,500 Mexicans to block, weed, hoe and harvest this acreage. The corporation is prepared to bring the necessary labor to the state for this purpose, and predicts that within three years Minnesota farmers will be raising 30,000 acres of beets.

Most of the newcomers can be expected to settle in St. Paul and South St. Paul. They will naturally want to be near those of their own kind so that they can speak their native Spanish. This situation will result in the continued growth of the St. Paul and South St. Paul colonies.

Sugar corporations in Minnesota have been paying their workers $5 an acre more than Michigan companies, but in Michigan the companies return the Mexicans to their homes in Texas when the season is over. This policy prevents the growth of "little Mexicos" within the state and does not place the Mexicans in the position of facing a northern winter without employment and without funds.

The Anatomy of a Metropolis

JAZZ and the powder puff, scurrying taxis and soaring skyscrapers, majestic traffic cops and tugs on the river, Wall Street, Fifth Avenue, Greenwich Village, Rivington Street, the Bowery and Harlem, Brooklyn Bridge and Grant's Tomb—these and a thousand other snapshot impressions blur into the cubistic image that for most men is New York. A strange monster tossed up by the sea, noisy, overwhelming, oppressive; or the thrilling queen of a continent, wearing a crown of towers glistening in the sun, mistress of finance, commerce and industry, and patron of the arts. *Così è, se vi pare.* Yet beneath the surface essentially human and subject to all the ills that flesh is heir to; needing the doctor now and then, and the hygienic advisor. Needing, therefore, to be anatomized and understood like any other corpus so that it may be saved from disease and wisely governed in health. Wherefore New York has been placed on the dissecting table, and, with the skill characteristic of modern surgery, has been opened up and explored, its vital organs examined and charted, without conscious disturbance of its usual life.

For New York is suffering from a kind of pernicious gigantism. It has permitted itself to grow heedlessly, planlessly; it has become congested, internally cluttered, very uncomfortable. Its attending physicians have begun to ask why it is crowded, what is doing the crowding, what is being crowded? In search for answers to these questions, the committee on Regional Plan of New York and Its Environs has undertaken twelve economic and industrial surveys covering the schools, the residence and the retail shopping districts, the wholesale markets, the financial districts, and the nine principal industries of the metropolitan area. These are vital organs of the city. What are they, how are they functioning, are they in fact vital, or merely vestigial like the vermiform appendix? Such questions indicate that the city is coming of age, that it is acquiring adolescent self-consciousness, that it is discovering the necessity of having a plan for its future career. In this sense it is typical of our principal American cities and of the nation generally.

The first diagnostic survey published by the Plan of New York committee deals with the chemical industry whose products range from ammonia and bleaching powder to soap and lip sticks. The survey is very definitely anatomical. Like most attempts of the technical specialist to share his knowledge with the common run of mankind, it hides much of its light under a bushel of bald professional terms and colorless statistical generalizations. What a chemical plant is like, what its organic life is, how it uses the human beings involved in its processes, how its activities affect other in-

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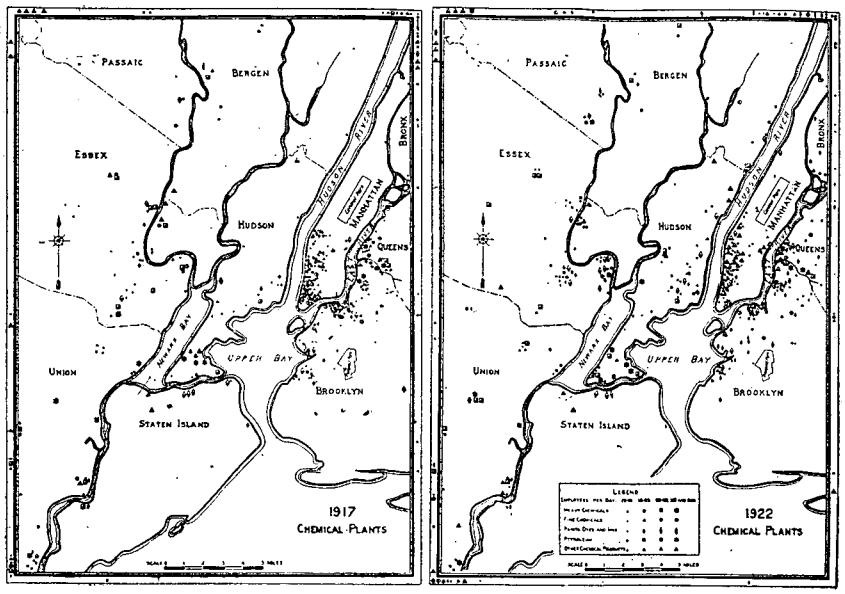

Some broad tendencies are obvious from these maps, but there is small evidence of planning with regard to functional needs

dustries and the community life—these "human interest" details are hardly indicated. It revives one's memories of the doctors' bedside consultation on the eve of an operation. Only the student having a special interest in the subject is likely to dig through its pages. But he will have his reward.

How the chemical industry came to select New York as one of its principal abodes is suggested by the fact that soap, and paint, and ink, and cosmetics are among its chief products. In 1919, 38.5 per cent of the country's output of perfumes and cosmetics came from New York. The chemical industry has a very human relationship to the habits and manners of the people. In a very real sense, it has been drawn to this center of population by the social attributes of human nature. And it has been drawn here by the physical characteristics of the island city itself. The immense waterfront of New York harbor has been the chief influence in centering the heavy chemical industry in the metropolitan area. The survey does not make it very clear what the heavy chemicals are, except to explain in general terms that both the raw materials and the finished product are of low value for their weight and bulk, so that cheap water transportation is of great importance in their manufacture and distribution. New York and Its Environs is the largest petroleum refining center in the world. The reasons for this are not obscure. It is easier and cheaper to transport crude oil by tanker and pipe line than the finished product. The principal product of the refineries is gasoline; eighty per cent of the gasoline is used by motor vehicles; nowhere in the world are there so many automobiles in a given area as in the metropolitan district. Obviously, the chemical industry is not a parasite or a vestigial survival; it is a vital organ in the municipal body.

In the matter of crowding and being crowded, however, it is both a victim and an offender. The individual plants which are the cells of the organism no doubt owe their present location in part to their functional relation to the other industries which they serve, but in equal or greater part to the whim of their owners or to accident. The survey does not reveal in any detail what their functional relation is so that it is not possible to make an accurate appraisal. It is the nature of the industry to require large ground space, partly because the machinery it uses can be operated most effectively on a single floor. It also has the characteristic of giving off evil fumes and odors, and abnormal amounts of offensive waste. While a most useful member of the body politic it is not always a desirable neighbor.

For this as well as for reasons of economic expediency it has shown an increasing tendency to redistribute itself. But the redistribution is not taking place in accordance with any carefully considered plan, so that its case may be as dis-easeful tomorrow as it is today. A principal object of the survey has been to follow its migrations, to analyse the causes of its apparently blind movings about, and so to guide its relocation with reference to its own essential requirements and the functions it performs.

The results of this study are graphically presented in the accompanying maps. It has been found, for example, that the manufacture of soap has been moving out of Manhattan. The amount of grease rendering and oil pressing and refining in the old city is decreasing. Fertilizer is still manufactured there in small quantities at the slaughter-houses, but was scheduled for discontinuance before the end of 1923. Since 1900, the manufacture of varnish has altogether disappeared from Manhattan Island. With appropriate irresponsibility and lightmindedness, perfumes and cosmetics have set up a large number of small plants in the heart of the metropolis, in spite of the fact that there is no functional reason why they should be there. When it is seen that there are more than thirteen hundred plants in the industry within New York and Its Environs, that they engage more than seventy thousand workers, and that of these approximately three-quarters are in factories employing 100 or more, it will be obvious that haphazard location is a constant source of irritation and obstruction to the free and healthful life of the city.

And after all the free, healthful life of the citizens is the only good reason for the city's existence. To this the life of individual industries must be subordinated as the life of individual organs in the body is subordinated in the normal life of the whole man. This anatomical study of the chemical and other principal industries is an essential preliminary to the determination of restricted zones, the reservation of open spaces, width of streets, size of blocks, transportation facilities, bridges, tunnels, hospitals, schools. It is to be hoped that the committee on Plan of New York and Its Environs will elaborate its findings into well illustrated books written in a language that laymen can understand. For an understanding of municipal anatomy is an essential part of the equipment of an enlightened democratic citizenship.

The experts tend to lose their original sense of the freshness and significance of the information which in the course of much mulling over they relegate to the pigeon-holes of their minds. Thousands of dollars and much enthusiasm and keen intelligence thus fail of their full educational effect. They should not be tempted by the slowness of the multitude to catch up with them in knowledge and insight to forget that their prime service is to foster this public educational process.

R. W. B.

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COMMUNITIES

The Social Worker as Statesman

This is the second of Mr. Lindeman's studies of The Social Worker and His Community, which began in the April Midmonthly. Next month, The Social Worker as Prophet.

EVERY technician and every individual who serves as a representative of human interests is in some degree a statesman. The distinction between a mere politician and a statesman is to be discovered in attitudes, not in functions. The politician by his maneuvers influences the direction of social forces no less than the statesman, albeit his influence may be negative. Both are functioning on behalf of people whom they represent. The differentiation is one of ends rather than means and the former always dictates attitudes. The ends of the politician revolve about himself or other specific persons. The ends of the statesman, on the other hand, are centrifugal, directed at process and concerned with the evolution of means. Both function with and through the same materials.

Social work has its politicians as well as its statesmen. The time has arrived for a sharp discrimination between these two types. The long experience of social work has brought about a partial inter-gearing of its functional machinery with the remaining social machinery of the community. The complete synchronizing cannot take place until many social politicians are transformed into social statesmen. The politicians have attempted to make social work a vested interest and vested interests must forever feed upon rather than intermingle with and cross-fertilize the more natural organized efforts of man.

Manipulator of Community Forces

So much has been said during the past decade concerning community organization that the observer might entertain the reasonable expectation of finding social workers engaged in this activity. Alas, his anticipations are doomed to disappointment. Wherever the community forces appear to be even partially organized to perform some continuous and significant function, this achievement invariably rests upon some specious form of expediency rather than upon skilled social planning. It is only where "community chest" associations transcend their originally conceived functions and enter the sphere of education that anything like real community organization appears. The writer has in mind the evolution of social work coordination as it has proceeded in such communities as Louisville where all of the important by-products are educative in character and where the educational by-products bid fair to assume such proportions as to cause money-raising to become incidental.

On the other hand, there exists a great deal of activity which, for want of a better name, may be called "manipulation of community forces." The writer has often observed social workers thus engaged and it must be admitted that many of them—especially the directing officials—exhibit an unusually skilful technique for this purpose. The process is, indeed, simple; someone decides that the community needs something; a method is determined upon for vocalizing this necessity; the "key" men or women in various organizations are consulted; once this inner cabal has agreed to "put it over," nothing remains to be done save the execution of a few propaganda tricks which any third-rate advertising agent can readily pull from his sleeve. When the community next has a want or can be induced to discover a want, the same process is revised with an occasional variation intended to honor some particular group or person. Nothing is created which enables the community to make known its real needs, and no continuing, evolving organization results. Unfortunately the few experiments in which attempts have been made to provide this continuing mode of expression have been so non-indigenous to the soil in which they were planted that they soon withered and died.

There will probably be a continuation of the loss of dignity on the part of local communities and a corresponding centralization in larger units until social scientists come to some objective understanding of what is meant by the community and its forces. There can be no sound community organization until it is known what is to be organized. There are those who still cling to the notion of a community as a conglomerate or aggregate of individuals; their efforts are directed toward some form of organization which will take account of every individual in the community. The test of such forms of community organization is usually stated as the question: Is it democratic? At least two precedent queries need to be raised, namely: Is it honest? and Will it work? Once these questions are asked, it becomes obvious that no form of community organization can be made to fit the facts unless its promulgators are cognizant of the group nature of modern life. The chief defect of manipulation is its utter incapacity to provide educational incentives. The social worker who becomes proficient in the manipulation of community forces may add to his personal equipment of efficiency, but he does nothing to educate the groups which are controlled by his manipulations. In the end, he undermines the community's capacity for self-organization and self-control.

Pacifier of Conflicts

Conflicts between individuals, between families and between groups constitute the raw material with which the social worker functions. Naturally the more elemental conflicts which acquire skilful adjusting are those in which the individual, the family, or the group is found to be out of harmony with the physical environment. In a broad sense such conflicts may be considered as social problems, but in the more restricted sense social problems arise out of conflicts between persons or groups of persons. In the sweep of abnormal psychology, all conflicts between persons have

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come to be regarded as forms of dissociation and the technique of the psychiatrist has in this connection been of tremendous value to the social worker. But there are indications that the new broom has swept too cleanly. When the whole of life is viewed as a continuing series of adjustments to changing situations, it becomes evident that all forms of conflict cannot be regarded as examples of dissociation and further that the technique of the social worker cannot stop with the refinements of psychiatry.

The acute conflicts between races which now form an important phase of social process provide illustrative material for the social worker's technique. The whole procedure was temporarily overshadowed by that modern inquisition called "Americanization" in which all of the characteristic principles of human behavior were negatived. Milder forms of coercion have succeeded this unwholesome experiment but the change has left the social worker suspended in mid-air. He can no longer coerce and he therefore accepts the easier task of pacification, which may be merely the method of peaceful coercion. The problem of assimilating, incorporating, amalgamating or causing the heterogeneous elements of our population to effect a satisfactory infusion is America's chief imperative and the lack of technique in this sphere of social work is astounding. At least one experiment embodying principles of this sort is being conducted but curiously enough social workers have been slow to evaluate and capitalize its technique. The experiment assumes that foreign-born persons have something to contribute to American culture and thence opportunities are provided for expression through the medium of nationality groups. It further assumes that foreign-born groups can best be assisted by methods which save self-respect and do not lead to pauperization. The various nationality groups bear a substantial share of the financial obligations incurred by the experiment. The adjustments which the various activities lead to are achieved by and through groups rather than through individuals, and each nationality group as a consequence is equipped with a trained leader who himself belongs to the various respective nationalities. The pertinent differences between the groups are recognized and dealt with as factors of possible accommodations.

Using Conflict for Higher Ends

Coercion and pacification are equally fruitless. In the one case, the contributions which the immigrant groups might make to our culture are stamped out and in the other case they are lost in the process of superficial adjustments. The pacifier utilizes the common denominators and minimizes all differences and the consequence must inevitably be mediocrity. Life is enriched by its variations, not by its samenesses. Once this principle becomes recognized, the social worker's function as pacifier will pass away. The facile compromiser will come to see the incompatibility between the establishment of a superficial peace where there is no peace and the surer knowledge that one resolved conflict is merely the stepping-stone for reaching upward to the next. There will be no cheap political victories based upon a presumed pacification of opposing factors which have not yet been frankly confronted. But in this place there will arise the more profound program of the statesman for whom the present victory is no more than an illusion. The statesman will tolerate no sham agreement where disagreement is fundamental and vital. The label "Closed" will never again appear on the folder of a "case" because life will then be viewed as a continuous stream in which the adventure of adjustment to a new situation is ever reborn.

As a Normal Personality

The community sees the social worker as a multiple personality. He is at one time regarded simply as a symbol, at another time as a person actually functioning in the sphere of human relations, and again as an individual sharing in that strategic statesmanship which directs the common life of the community. The rôle of the social worker in the community is probably never reflected in the light of any one of these single elements, but rather as a complex in which one aspect or another dominates the picture for any given situation.

One of the common aspirations of most persons is to be regarded and evaluated by others in the light of pure personality. One would like to believe that there is a worth which is independent of symbols and functions—that with these attributes stripped away there would still remain the essential personality with its own values and with its distinct place in the community. The possibilities of so-called pure personality are, of course, not attainable. We are what we do, but the recognition of this fact does not deter us from wishing to be known for what we are independently of what we do. Politicians, denied the laurels of great statesmanship, still content themselves with the knowledge that their personalities have won respect. Preachers and professors frequently make pitiful attempts to act so that they will be regarded as men and not as preachers or professors. On the other hand, there is a well defined and widely-accepted theory that professionals and experts are degraded as the ratio of their normal contacts increases. The social worker is fortunately placed for the achievement of a normal personality status in the community. His contacts bring him into first-hand relation to those significant human events reaching from birth unto death which constitute the summum bonum of life. He knows the experiences of the common man and the common woman—the experiences which count for failure or success, joy or sorrow. If life can be enriched by knowledge of life, the social worker is assuredly in a position to enjoy a very rich life. In the earlier days of social work, and particularly among the pioneers of the settlement movement, personalities which appeared to envisage the common life and experience of man were to be found. They are rare indeed today. Social work has been dehumanized and in the process much of the enthusiasm and spirit which once dominated its leaders has been lost. There has even appeared a social work "jargon," a manner of speech which differentiates the social worker and sets him off as a person apart from the commonalty. And there are observers who insist that the very type has been set so that it becomes possible to discriminate and to designate social workers by the appearance of their countenances. Something of hardness has crept into the personality of social workers. Occasionally this quality manifests itself as a distinct cynicism which is the surest indication of a personality detached from the balanced experiences of normal life.

It was no accident that Jane Addams emerged from the intense conflicts of a heterogeneous neighborhood to become the symbol of a new international statesmanship. Here was a personality which never scorned technique but which never allowed technique to supplant the finer human quali-

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ties; a personality which dealt with politicians but never succumbed to the short-time point of view which emasculates their efforts; a personality which exerted a powerful influence over community forces but never conspired to direct those forces for personal ends; in short, a personality embodying the ingredients of true social statesmanship. Jane Addams epitomizes the values which inhere in social work and which combined to make the last generation of social workers the seed-bed for the normal growth of statesmen.

Greater opportunities exist today. Social work no longer rests its appeal upon a mere resentment against the negative factors contributing to misery. Its aims are higher. The community has accepted its earlier function, but with that acceptance has come the danger of allowing the function to become static. Negation is not enough. Social work must adopt a program and a technique which deals with the entire scope of human adjustments. For this task, statesmanship of a high order is needed. Mere technicians will not suffice.

E. C. LINDEMAN

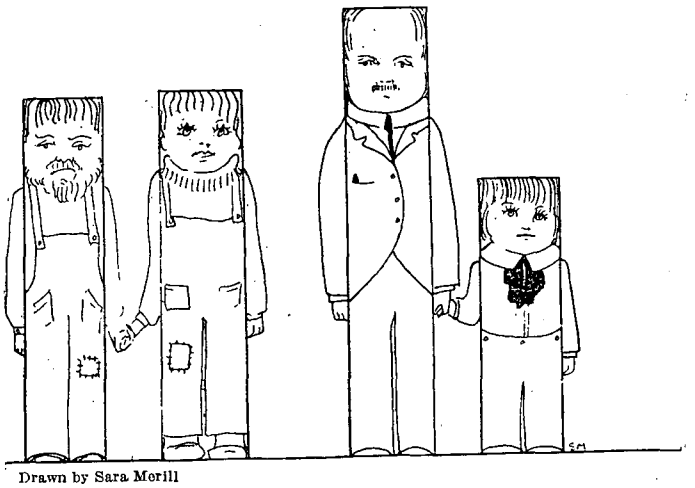
The Child Crop

DOES it ever occur to economists who are worried about the prices of farm products and the prosperity of farmers that there is a human factor in the farm problem which may transcend the bare price problem? How would the list of cities in the United States which range from 2,500 to 100,000 population—a list that totals about thirty millions of people—like to undertake to school and educate an extra 4,000,000 children, to say nothing about nursing, feeding, clothing, housing them? How would they like this extra job, while 4,000,000 of their adults were away,—withdrawn, let us say, for a thirty-year furlough from city life? How would they like to see these children, when once educated and ready for careers, invariably leave and go to the cities of the next higher grade?

That is just what is happening to the farm families of the United States. This statistical discovery is due to the fact that Farm Population was established for the first time as a statistical concept in the United States Census reports for 1920. The adoption of this term marks a scientific advance in the economics of agriculture and in the sociology of farm communities. Farm Population is defined as including "all persons actually living on farms" together with "farm laborers (and their families) who, while not living on a farm, nevertheless live in strictly rural territory, outside the limits of any village or other incorporated place."

Heretofore Rural Population, which enclosed in one and the same statistical package both city people living in incorporated places of less than 2,500 population, and farm people, was supposed to be a good enough classification with which to measure the facts about farmer folks. Now that we possess a separate census package for farm people, we begin to realize how defective the old concept was and how useful the new one is.

For illustration take this one little incontrovertible fact as to the number of children in the farm population in comparison with the number of children in the urban or city population, which is brought into the clear for the first time in the 1920 Census Report. For the whole United States, 19 per cent of the urban population are under 10 years of age; while 25.7 per cent of the farm population are under 10. Likewise 18.5 per cent of the urban population are from 10 to 20 years of age; while 24.7 per cent of the farm population are from 10 to 20. That is, the number of farm children under 10 exceeds the number of city children under 10 by 6.7 per cent and the farm children from 10 to 20 exceed the city children from 10 to 20 by 6.2 per cent. This makes a total excess of 12.9 per cent of children under 21 years of age among the farm population. It turns out, moreover, that only



Drawn by Sara Morill

THE CHILD CROP IN COUNTRY AND TOWN

The new census figures show that a little less than half the people in the open country are adults and a little more than half are children under 21. But in towns and cities five-eighths of the people are grown up and only three-eighths are children. In round numbers, every adult on the farm has one whole child on his back, while in town five grown-ups divide the burden of every three children

49.5 per cent of the farm population are 21 years of age and over; while 62.5 per cent of the urban population are 21 years of age and over. That is, the city has an excess over the farm of 13 per cent of adults, to offset the farm's 12.9 per cent excess of children.

The significance of this discovery becomes more apparent when we turn our per cent figures into actual numbers. For this purpose we may compare the whole farm population, 31,614,269, with an equivalent number of urban population. It appears that in round numbers, the farm families of America have 4,000,000 more children under 21 years than city families; while the farm families have 4,000,000 fewer adults than the city families of an equal total number of persons. These 4,000,000 children in excess, which the farmers of America are carrying along for final city enrichment, comprise as many persons as a small nation; almost as many as the population of Ireland; more than that of Switzerland; more than Chile; more than Denmark; many more than Norway.

When we remember that the 2,000,000 children under 10 are non-producers and the 2,000,000 children from 10 to 20 are only partial producers, while the 4,000,000 excess of adults in cities are in the producing class, we see that the farm people with 4,000,000 fewer producers are feeding, clothing, rearing, and educating 4,000,000 more children than the city people of an equal total population. The anomalous character of this fact is enhanced when it appears, as is undoubtedly the case, that in a constant stream this excess of children is flowing to the city ready-bred, ready-educated, ready-equipped as producers.

C. J. GALPIN

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For Broader "Information"

IN its dual role of serving the common interests of national social agencies, and of carrying assurance to the contributing public as to the character and effectiveness of the national social work which they are asked to finance, the National Information Bureau is engaged in three special pieces of investigation.

One, just begun, relates to the financial support of all national social agencies. Its purpose is to gather all the facts on this increasingly difficult question—such facts as the geographical distribution of support, receipts from foundations, community chests, local branches and individuals; the increase or decrease of budgets before, during and since the war; the various forms of quota assessment by which support is sought from individual communities. Facts of this sort will be assembled and compared for national agencies as a whole, for such functional groups as the health, character-building, personal and family welfare agencies, and for groups classified on the basis of organization—such as nationals chartering locals, national federations of locals, and nationals with general advisory and information service.

The study is not for the academic purpose of compiling the facts. When assembled, they are to become the subject of conference between representatives of national social agencies and their contributors. The aim will be to see whether some better working agreements and procedures cannot be found to replace the situation which the Lee and Pettit report on the interrelation of national social agencies termed "chaotic." The most immediate need for such systematizing arises in connection with the rapidly spreading community chest movement. This is an attempt to systematize social finance locally, and such an attempt is manifestly irreconcilable with chaos in national social finance.

The study will be guided by a committee, formed at the bureau's invitation, of 21 representatives of national social agencies, with Philip P. Jacobs of the National Tuberculosis Association as chairman.

A study of the central organization and administration of the Salvation Army is just being completed. This inquiry, conducted by Porter R. Lee and Walter W. Pettit during the last nine months, has been made with the most thorough and hearty cooperation of the Army itself. It should give a deeper insight into both the achievements and the problems of this much discussed agency than social workers have ever had before.

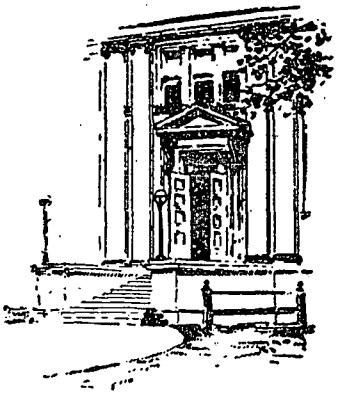
An appraisal of the national social settlement movement is just getting under way. This will aim to discover most exactly the services and accomplishments of the settlement movement. The executive committee of the National Federation of Settlements voted their approval of the study before the bureau would undertake it; Robert A. Woods, chairman; George A. Bellamy, Charles C. Cooper, John L. Elliott, Francis Ingram, Albert J. Kennedy, and Lea D. Taylor form a cooperating committee. The Hudson Guild and its neighborhood on the west side of New York have been selected as the first object of study. The committee and the bureau will determine the method for the country-wide inquiry on the basis of this first local investigation.

To increase its service to national agencies, the bureau is bringing its list of endorsed organizations more emphatically to the attention of prospective givers. The Merchants' Association of New York and the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York have recently sent the bureau's list to all their members, with resolutions from their boards urging that their members study the list carefully and refrain from giving to any national philanthropic appeal not on the list unless a special report has first been secured from the bureau.

The bureau found that a passive policy of merely answering inquiries about appeals was not effective in what Sherman C. Kingsley calls "eleemosynary birth control." Last year 208 appeals from new supposedly national organizations came to its attention. Only nine could qualify for endorsement on the basis of elementary standards of administration and finance. The inquiries, in each case, came to the bureau *after* the appeals were well under way: there had been a considerable response before the bureau could do anything to check them. The new policy aims to put givers on notice that unendorsed appeals are probably worthless and certainly in need of investigation. Other commercial bodies throughout the country are being invited to follow New York's example, and it is expected before the year is out that large groups of givers throughout the country will be thoroughly informed as to the relatively few worth-while national appeals and the multitude of unworthy ones. Information will be issued at frequent intervals with the purpose of keeping givers alert.

ALLEN T. BURNS

Books Where People Are



THIS is the door of the main building of the Youngstown Public Library, at Youngstown, Ohio. It is four blocks from the Public Square which forms the center of town. The Public Square is where the people are. When the books are four blocks away, fewer people use them; the "per-circulation" cost of running the library goes up and its social usefulness goes down. Exactly this result has been seen in more than one city where millions were invested in a new monumental building which, of necessity, had to be put far from the traffic center. Four blocks is not a big handicap, as such matters go, but it was big enough to dissatisfy Joseph L. Wheeler, the librarian.

So the Youngstown Library moved to the Public Square. Not the main collection, of course, but a compact distributing branch. First it opened a service station in temporary quarters—even using for some months the end of a sheet metal waiting room which stood for a year on the main street. Then it decided to put a branch library building there. There were two difficulties: one group of citizens wished to keep an unimpaired green spot in the center of the town; the other group wished to wipe out park, monuments and everything else and have the whole square paved in the interest of traffic relief. Both policies were respected in building the branch library. It was laid out to occupy the same space as the basin of an old iron fountain which had long been an eyesore, so that no new encroachment was

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made on the park. And it was built on a structure of heavy steel beams in such a way that when Youngstown reaches a decision as to what permanent use it will make of the site the whole building can easily be moved away. But it will not be moved far: it is on the Public Square because it belongs there.

The project of bringing books all the way to the people was so favorably received that the branch was built without a penny of cost to the city. Labor unions designated representatives to do the work of building, meeting their wages from an assessment on more than 2,000 building trades workers. Material, utility, insurance and miscellaneous service concerns provided building materials, equipment, heating, lighting and even advertising. Some costly materials were bought with cash contributions from citizens.

The branch is now open every week-day from nine in the morning till nine at night. A rotating collection of about 5000 books is kept on hand, replenished twice a day by deliveries from the main library. Service is given only to adults, or to employed children. While fiction makes up the bulk of the circulation, the three upper shelves all around the room are devoted to non-fiction so as to give it every advantage of display. The Youngstown Advertising Club has a committee to cooperate in attracting public attention to the books. All the details of the building are designed with an eye to publicity. The outside is illuminated at night and has electric signs and show-cases.

The Youngstown Public Library is aggressively trying to get books into the lives of as many people as it can. It does not even rely on the time-honored invitation "Come and get them." It has gone where the people are.

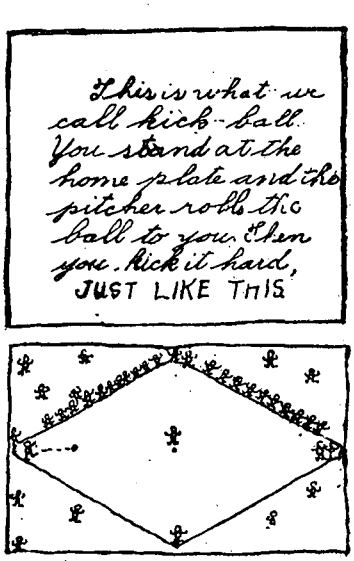
"ADMISSION, ONE EMPLOYER." That will be the rule for social workers at the meetings next year when the All-Philadelphia Welfare Conference discusses social and industrial justice, if the suggestion made this year by Joseph P. Hagedorn is carried out. Mr. Hagedorn, in one of the few bits of discussion from the floor which were heard at this year's sessions, urged social workers not to be content with talking to each other, when the problems they hoped to solve lay in the hands of stockholders and business management. This annual conference—now in its second year—is bringing together in large numbers the diverse elements in Philadelphia social work. There were more than 850 registrants this year, and the program was closely packed with a broad range of subject matter. It was, in fact, a pocket edition of a national conference rather than a neighborhood *conversazione*.

TWO HOURS a day, from March 3 to March 18, the social agencies of Denver surveyed themselves, group by group, meeting at the call of the Denver Community Chest. Aside from general gains in mutual understanding, the conferences pointed the way to definite weaknesses in Denver social work—such as, for example, the failure of the boys' work agencies to do much for boys in discouraging sections of the city, and to the need of more intensive study of child welfare and other fields of work.

WITH A SOBRIETY that would do credit to Boston and a deliberate thoroughness that even Columbus, Ohio, could not surpass, the Windy City has completed a preliminary study of The Financing of Social Agencies. The investigation, financed by the Commercial Club of Chicago, was made by the Council of Social Agencies, with the assistance of John A. Lapp, director of the Social Action Department of the National Catholic Welfare Conference, and others. A book of some 200 pages carries the report; it is full of fact, and severely free from recommendations. Further steps are left to the discretion of the social agencies and contributing public of Chicago. The growth of social effort in Chicago, swinging along from disaster to disaster, the beginnings of various co-operative groups—even the "Federation of Aged and Adult Charities" is discussed without a twinkle,—the wholesome influence of the Subscriptions Investigating Committee of the Association of Commerce, make up an interesting historical chapter. An admirable analysis of the Methods and Cost of Budget Raising by Private Social Agencies; a study of tag days (with a mild complaint that the City Council, which limits tag days by ordinance to three per year, has good-naturedly authorized 156 of them in four years); a suggestive record of Bequests and Trust Gifts; and a conventional and not wholly accurate review of the Financial Federation Movement make up the bulk of the report. It is a striking fact that voluntary contributions amount to only $6,000,000 out of a total annual public and private expenditure, for social welfare, of nearly $48,000,000; another, that one per cent of the voluntary contributors are giving 58 per cent of the total given to all private agencies.

THE CITY of Augusta and Richmond County, Georgia—60,000 population—are now being surveyed under the supervision of the Georgia Council of Social Agencies. Carter Taylor, director of disaster relief for the Southern Division of the American Red Cross, is on leave of absence to direct the study, his expenses being paid by the local community. The state council is putting in workers from state and national agencies to help. But the initiative came from within the community, and a great deal of the work is being done by local volunteers under the guidance of trained investigators. Where technical service is especially necessary, local committees are used in much the same way as volunteer case-committees. The community feels that it is a real self-study in which it is participating, while at the same time it has the concentrated service of many state and national agencies. The state council intends to make Augusta somewhat of a demonstration and will keep closely in touch with the program which results.

NOT THE LEAST of the tasks of organized recreation is to tell folks plainly how to play games. For vigor and graphic adequacy, we commend the brief exposition of the game of kick-ball, prepared by a pupil of the John Muir School, Berkeley, California, for a school album sent to Italy under the auspices of the Junior Red Cross, and reproduced in a recent number of The World's Health, published by the League of Red Cross Societies. In the face of such spontaneity and enthusiasm as the participants show, it would obviously be pedantic to inquire what happens to the ball after you "kick it hard, just like this."


This is what we call kick-ball. You stand at the home plate and the pitcher rolls the ball to you. Then you kick it hard, JUST LIKE THIS

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HEALTH

Who Is Responsible for Mary Fallon's Health?

MARY FALLON, aged eighteen, applied for a position as saleslady just before Christmas. After waiting in line some time she was interviewed briefly and accepted. A week later she turned up in the store health department complaining of toothache. On examination the dentist found the whole upper jaw lined with decaying roots; the lower teeth were also seriously affected. Nothing short of complete removal of the upper roots, with a plate eventually, and much repair of the lower teeth would put that mouth in proper shape for mastication and health.

Who failed to prevent? Mary? Mary's school? Mary's parents? Who now should pay the $50 to $100 necessary to put her mouth in condition? The problem which a physician in industry must face has its source in past and present living conditions of the individual employe, which he can modify little or not at all, but must consider, as well as in the conditions of working environment more or less under his control.

Home Environment—16 Hours

The sixteen hours spent outside the store have a large influence on the health of each store worker and consequently on the effectiveness of the whole group. The higher the level of public health in the community where the worker lives the better in general will be the health of the individual. The public school has a growing influence on the physical condition, the health knowledge and health intelligence of its graduates, who come as juniors to work in the stores. The home and the *parents,* however, are chiefly responsible for the health and vigor of the children. The largest opportunity given for endowing the individual with health capital begins with marriage and prenatal care. Preventive dentistry, for example, is pointing to the nutrition during the prenatal period as the means for laying the foundation for sound teeth.

Infancy and childhood are the habit forming periods; often the industrial age is too late. An infant learns health habits under the parents' guidance. Briefly, these include personal hygiene, such as sufficient and regular sleep, personal habits of cleanliness, regular meals of well balanced diet, regulation of bowels, healthful outdoor recreation, suitable clothes and shoes, and good mental health habits. Certainly in health matters the saying is true that "Civilization's greatest responsibility is to produce parents with whom it is safe for children to live."

The *school* may well examine the incoming pupil, supplement home habit-teaching, correct defects, and teach the principles of health as they apply to the individual pupil and the group. Organized play and games which will provide pleasure in later years might well be included in the school's preparation for life. Mental health and a training in how to get along with folks come naturally in this formative period to ensure good citizenship and reasonable adjustment to the individual's life situation. Here also lies an opportunity for intelligent sympathetic vocational guidance. A wise choice of occupation may result not only in the earning of a living wage, but may also satisfy the individual's urge for self-expression, so essential for happiness and contentment.

The effect of these various early influences is strikingly illustrated by studies of the physical equipment of different groups of young adults. Less than 5 per cent of the 1,200 students who entered Harvard College and the School of Business Administration in 1922 were suffering from correctable physical defects. Contrast with this finding the examination of more than 1,200 store employes, of whom, according to the age group, 95 per cent to 99 per cent had from one to five correctable physical defects. Again contrast the finding in a very high-grade store with careful physical examination and follow-up of 1,400 applicants. Here about 70 per cent showed defects, with an average of two correctable defects per applicant. The highly selected college group reflects intelligent parental and school care. It demonstrates the possibility of preventive medicine, and justifies the investment of money as health capital.

In the selection of applicants for store work this health capital of the individual and his home environment may well be taken into account as important assets. The report of the store visiting nurse should include at least a rough estimate of the home conditions of employes who are absent on account of illness. This will include housing, home economics, the family and its budget with an estimate of the success of home-making, and the character of medical and nursing care available. Home environment below a reasonable minimum should be recorded on the patient's record, so that the doctor may have it in mind in reviewing the case and advising suitable care.

Conditions of travel between home and store are important. A study of the place of residence of workers in one Boston store disclosed that 70 per cent lived outside Boston proper. The expenditure of time and the exposure to infection in crowded trains and street cars are to be reckoned as important health hazards.

The individual responsibility of those at an age to share in industry is a gradual development from infancy, supplementing the parents and the school, and finally becoming the chief factor. Very little can be accomplished in industry in the way of preventive medicine and hygiene without the cordial cooperation of the individual, who feels this responsibility for his own health.

Store Environment—8 Hours

For eight hours a day the worker lives in the store environment. The conditions under which he works are determined largely by the store management. Early medical service in stores, with few exceptions, was limited to the emergency, and covered the legal requirement of first aid. Under a better rounded conception of its possibilities, however, the mercantile health field offers a new opportunity

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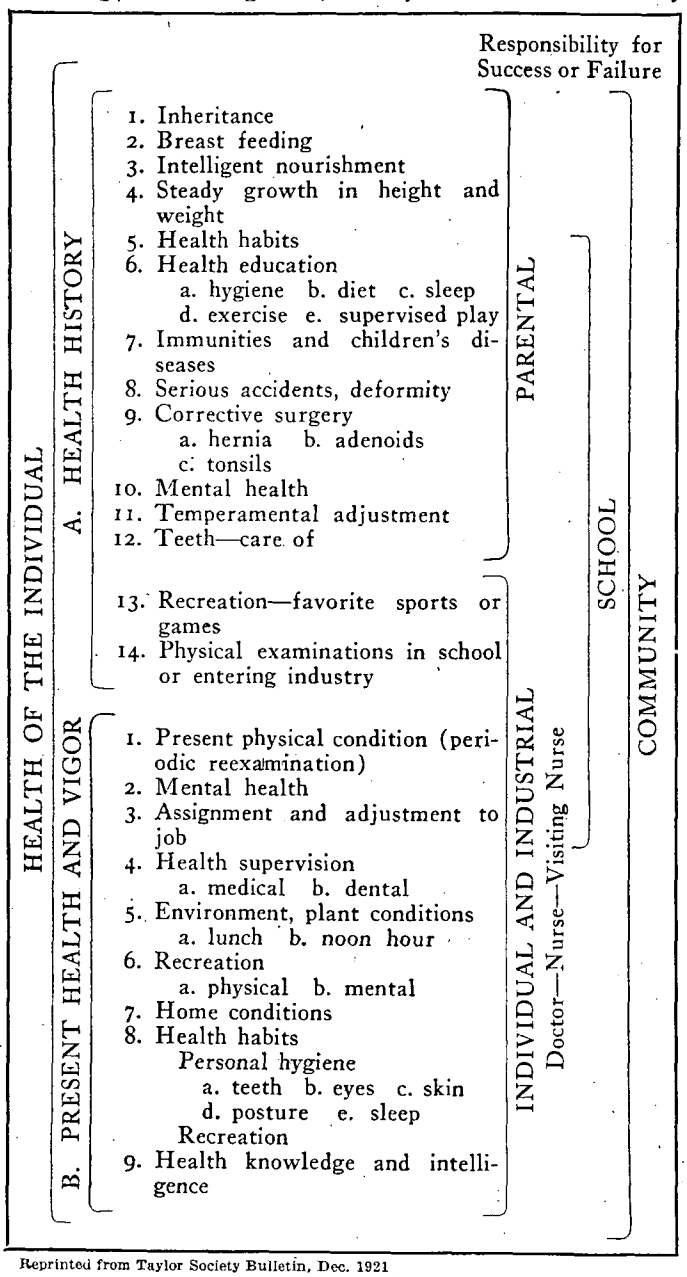
for preventive medicine, and it was to measure this need and opportunity that the Harvard Mercantile Health Work was organized four years ago. The idea was first conceived by a group of merchants who believed that it was good business to prevent absence and lost time from illness and injury and finally to build up the vitality of the store force; they supplied funds to meet the budget, and the Harvard Medical School agreed to supervise the studies. In a series of investigations of actual department stores, this organization has defined some of the more important problems and suggested methods to meet them.

The common cold is the most expensive disease. Much can be done to prevent it when employe and management work together. Indigestion, usually the second most costly cause of ill health, is commonly due to ignorance or carelessness in individual health habits and diet. Painful and tired feet and poor posture, found in about half of those who must stand at work, can be relieved and prevented by suitable shoes and exercises. A "work chair" (described in detail in the Journal of Industrial Hygiene, May 1921) will relieve much fatigue of those who sit at work. Only half of those with defective eyesight, found in about two of every four workers, have had it corrected with suitable glasses. Preventive dentistry at cost is enthusiastically patronized and of undoubted value in preventing disability. Fear, worry and many nervous disorders, commonly found in stores, can be reduced by mental hygiene. Those in supervisors' positions, who are responsible for the conduct of others, may benefit especially by its teachings.



Reprinted from Taylor Society Bulletin, Dec. 1921

A FORMULA FOR AN EFFICIENT WORKMAN

The chart above is an attempt to correlate the responsibility of parents, school and store, community and individual, for the various health factors of a worker's life. Note that the health responsibility of parents and school overlap on certain factors, that the school's and industry's overlap, and that the community has a responsibility, over the whole life, for general environment—included in such terms as public health, public schools, public playgrounds, public utilities, public meetings and entertainments, and town planning

Physical examination of applicants, with follow-up, is the basis of intelligent health work in stores. If these examinations are carefully done, they are appreciated by the workers and are profitable to the business. For about five dollars per person per year a satisfactory health service can be built up.

The sound policy of finance, my experience shows, is to organize a mutual benefit association. Membership must be a condition of employment. Each member pays dues of from one half of one per cent to one per cent of his wage. The business contributes an equal amount. With this fund the health department is financed and compensation for prolonged illness is paid. This cooperative scheme results in an elected group, running their own health department, adapted to their special needs, financed cooperatively, and in the interests of the business, the success of which means their own success. The small store, office, or bank, can hardly finance a complete service alone. A group of small stores with a combined population of 1,000 or more people could well do this. The economical and practical way to run this is to have a nurse and doctor visit each member—store, office, or bank—at regular times and give just the amount of service needed. The cost of such service might be slightly higher.

The health of the adult has been popularly considered largely or entirely a personal matter. How true is that today? Even after we have granted the tremendous importance to any individual of his parents, his early training and environment, and his adult choice of work, play and manner of living, are we not justified in concluding that there are many conditions in mercantile life in a large city over which the individual has little control? Do not these conditions make a satisfactory and healthy life difficult for him?

An adequate and sound program of mercantile health work should mean better health, better team work, better morale, and better business.

ARTHUR B. EMMONS, 2d, M.D.

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A County Looks at Itself

WHEN the builders of the temple at Delphi inscribed in it the Words of the Seven Wise Men of Greece —leading with Solon's "Know Thyself"—they probably had in mind only the individual men and women who would come to worship the God Apollo. But Solon's message is as applicable to the community as to the individual—and a later century sees it working out in ways and in lands beyond the most fantastic dreams of its framer, far from the classic scene of Mount Parnassus, in the Main Streets of the towns of our American Southwest, and beyond the towns where the street merges into the pike, and the pike branches in forks, which dwindle away in lanes and trails.

In this instance the seeker was a county in Arkansas, so truly rural that it had only one town with a population which passed 1,000; the knowledge sought was a picture of the lives of its mothers, babies, and young children, and the bearing of their ways of living upon health.

This study, or survey, as it was dignified, was made for the people of the county and by them, with the aid and advice of the state bureau of child hygiene, which operated under the Sheppard-Towner Act. The bureau supplied simple questionnaires and eventually tabulated them and submitted them to the county in the form of a report for discussion and further action. The county supplied the workers. The doctors, preachers, teachers, school directors, and women who were especially interested agreed to devote a definite amount of time to visiting six or eight homes. A few zealous ones asked for more. Each worker was coached in the significance of every point on the questionnaire, and urged to obtain information which would be as accurate as possible.

In the rural Southwest there never comes a time convenient for special work. Lack of modern improvements makes the life of the country man and his wife one of constant drudgery. It was canning season for the women and harvest time for the men. The midsummer term was in full session as teachers and pupils alike soon would be needed in the cotton fields. Among the early perplexities was the discovery that some of the workers, among them a school director, could neither read nor write. They were eager and earnest, however, and agreed to obtain competent amanuenses, and their services were accepted with appreciation. Once the workers were assigned and instructed, there were other obstacles—bad roads, washed-out bridges, trails which were impassable even to a Ford. A sturdy horse waded belly-deep through the muck of a black lagoon to reach one district which lay beyond the lagles of the swamp. Some of the families to be visited lived on houseboats, spending their entire lives on the unwholesome river bottom. Others worked in the lumber camps in dense and distant forests, living in tents, shacks, or even in freight cars ready to be hoisted to the railroad track and moved on to a new tract when this supply of timber was exhausted.

The object of the study was not to collect statistics, but to suggest to these people the simple needs of growing children, and to help them discover how nearly they were meeting these needs. To this end, the questionnaire had been reduced to its lowest terms. It enquired as to the home—ownership, the length of residence in it, the sanitary condition of the premises—water supply, privy and screens. These questions brought out the fact that the average tenant moved every two years and rarely obtained good housing, or the milk, eggs, and vegetables which his children needed. It asked about the general health of the fathers and any history of the influenza, pneumonia, or possible tuberculosis in the home. It inquired as to the mother's general health, especially her child-bearing record: the number of stillbirths, live births, and living children; the character and extent of medical and nursing service at confinements, with any story of complications, such as convulsions, risen breast, milk leg, childbed fever and the like; and her health before confinement and since. It obtained data as to the care of babies' cords and eyes; the registration of their births, their feeding history and an account of their illnesses, with ages and causes; and a history of the nutrition, general health, and illnesses of children under six. This gave a fairly good picture of what was happening in the homes of the children in this county, and its reaction on the men and women who were doing the work was most illuminating.

THIS county survey was a rare event in the uneventful lives of its people. The Bureau of Child Hygiene was almost swamped with the questionnaires that came pouring in. Everyone was eager for the report which the county printed at once in the form of a booklet and sent broadcast. On every point covered by the survey family, neighborhood and community discussions arose. For instance, birth registration, heretofore unknown or at best only a frill of state agencies, was put on the map; certain doctors admitted their laxness, old grannies retired from the field, and the parents now have a feeling of responsibility in knowing that their children's births are recorded. Midwifery, supposed to be a negligible quantity in this county, proved to be a vital issue and steps were taken to instruct and supervise the work of the midwives, steadily raising the standard in the hope of weeding out the most unfit. The complacency of parents concerning the underweight of their children changed to solicitude for their better nutrition.

Thanks to an enterprising county agent, help was available in boring good wells, installing screens and decent privies; in securing family cows and flocks of chickens. With the aid of a good home demonstration agent, cooking and canning clubs and classes in nutrition were formed. A splendid public health nurse kept the doctors and dentists busy with eyes, ears, throats and teeth, and the druggists had to lay in a stock of tooth brushes. Crippled children were sent to an orthopedic hospital, tuberculous children to sanatoria. At the county fair more than 1,200 youngsters were roped off and passed through a tent single file to be weighed and measured. Though assured by the health officer that the heavy incidence of malaria in the county was due to the poor drinking water; though one doctor admitted that he could not afford to change his diagnosis of follicular tonsilitis, until five children had died of diphtheria; though broken arms and club feet had been neglected in the past, the medical profession itself is more keenly alive to the need of more scientific work. Estimates on draining the surrounding land and installing an adequate water and sewerage system are being obtained; suspicious throats are swabbed and the swabs are sent to the state board of health for diagnosis; and children may no longer swallow water-

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melon seed in peace without getting a shot of anti-toxin. Another victory of the survey is the apparent conversion of the Holy Rollers.

Better than all else perhaps is the fact that at the following session of the quorum or levying court, an appropriation was made towards the support of the public health nurse heretofore maintained by lumber mills and the local tuberculosis association. This was a conscious recognition of the rights of coming citizens to public supervision of their physical development as well as of their mental training. Other types of rural surveys are being made by senior students of state universities, by classes in rural sociology and the like, but probably a simple study like this, made by the people most concerned, has a certain dramatic, impelling, practical value lacking in the more skilled survey of the experts, with all its scientific, polished remoteness.

FRANCES SAGE BRADLEY, M. D.

CHAULMOOGRA trees, planted at Corozal and Mount Hope in the Canal Zone, are expected to give their first fruits this year, and it is hoped that within five years their yield may be sufficient to provide chaulmoogra oil (See The Survey: March 15, 1924) for the treatment of all lepers on the Isthmus.

IN THE PAST ten years medical inspection of schools has become an accepted canon of the best practice in health and in education. Bulletin No. 63 of the Russell Sage Foundation Library brings together a selected bibliography of material on this subject published in magazines or in book form since 1914. It may be obtained from the library, 130 East 22nd Street, New York City, for ten cents.

PROBABLY the schools of Suffolk County, New York, show a sanitary condition no worse than that of any other similar country district. A recent inspection of 45 of them, conducted by R. C. Craft, superintendent of schools of the 2nd district of the county, and Dr. Frank Overton, district state health officer, showed, however, that only 2 scored 90 on a possible 100 points which covered the conditions of drinking water supplies, lavatories, and toilets. Seven scored between 80 and 90; seven between 70 and 80, and 9 scored less than 40, with 20 as the lowest score. The facts are to be presented to the board of trustees of each school, and a second inspection will be made.

WATERTOWN, N. Y., led by its visiting nurse association, has recently opened a health building as a memorial to its men who served in the World War. The building provides offices for the local Red Cross chapter, quarters for tuberculosis, child welfare, dental and other clinics, and, in the basement, a parking space for baby carriages! The land on which the building stands was a gift; about $25,000 of the cost of erecting it was donated by contributors to the Watertown war chest, who assigned to it the amounts which otherwise would have been returned to them at the close of the war activities, and the balance was raised largely by private subscriptions. The architects gave their services.

HARDLY more than a year after insulin came into general use as a weapon in combating diabetes (See The Survey: February 15, 1923, Can Diabetes Be Checked?), the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company is able to report a small, but probably significant, decline of 6.4 per cent in the death-rate from that disease among its industrial policy holders. The decline becomes the more significant in comparison with the results of the preceding three years which showed a continuous rise amounting in all to 28 per cent, between 1919 and 1922. "It is too early, as yet," the company declares in its Statistical Bulletin, "to say finally that the sudden check in the rising mortality from diabetes is to be credited to the use of this apparently successful treatment. Before this can be done we must have figures showing declines for a series of years, and a greater rate of decrease must be shown. If the rate drops again in 1924 it will be safe to assume that there is *some* well defined cause for the reversal of the trend which was observed between 1919 and 1922. And, as there appears to be no *other* outstanding reason for the check in diabetes mortality last year, it is extremely probable, to say the least, that the increasingly successful and widespread use of insulin was the chief factor in lowering the death-rate from this disease."

IN BALTIMORE more than a quarter (27 per cent) of the excess Negro mortality was due to tuberculosis. Tentative figures for tuberculosis in 1923 indicate that the country over, this devastating disease is being checked. Even under the apparently adverse conditions of a great city such as New York, the result of past thirty years' effort to promote health and living conditions is dramatic. With increasingly exact definition of the Negro health problem, and the application of the well-tested weapons of the public health crusade, there seems every reason to hope that a large part of the cruel handicap of the colored race can be wiped out.

HOW MANY public health nurses are there in the United States, and what are they doing? The answers to these questions are to be sought in the census of public health nursing recently undertaken by the National Association for Public Health Nursing. For many years valuable material on the field of public health nursing was gathered by Yssabella G. Waters through questionnaires sent to each organization engaged in the work, and in 1922 these files were consolidated by the National Organization. With the growth of the movement, however, this method has become difficult of application, and under the present plan census representatives will be appointed by the state organizations for each state and for cities of more than 200,000. These representatives will collect the data as of January 1, 1924, listing the number of organizations employing public health nurses, and various details as to their duties, salaries, etc. A special effort will be made to ascertain the number of Negro nurses employed in public health work, the number of nurses employed in the schools, the methods by which the organizations obtain their support, and their nursing programs—whether they deal with some or all of the various categories of patients—medical, surgical, acute, chronic, obstetrical, mental, communicable disease, etc. It is planned to continue similar enumerations at regular intervals, to be determined later, on the basis of the facts and experience obtained in this study.

The 1924 poster of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

Probation—Eight Years After

Massachusetts now carries 17,000 convicted offenders on probation and only 3,400 locked up. The State Commission on Probation has made an elaborate study to discover whether the after-effects of probation justify its use. That study is here summarized by the deputy commissioner and secretary of the commission.

MASSACHUSETTS, under a strict regime of state economy, has attained a standard in official printing—diminished type, eliminated "leads," reduced margins—and has abolished thereby the mischievous lure of the public document to the casual reader. "Senate 431" being the "Report of the Commission on Probation on an Inquiry into the Permanent Results of Probation" is exemplary in its defensive typography against any but the most resolute reader. But it is tightly packed with facts in the field of human behavior after a court reckoning.

Another vogue is discoverable in this publication. It is that of underclaim. This commission, an adjunct of the courts, existing as does the entire probation service of the state within judicial bounds and control, was set at the task of studying the careers of persons who had some time well in the past been through the probation process of correction. As the official custodian of the device, it might have been expected to dilate upon favorable discoveries. But it chose to leave deductions largely to the reader of its abundantly displayed facts. Hence the report is statistical and most moderately argumentative. The restraint shown by the commission may be due to the fact that it asked for the authority—and the appropriation—to make the survey. It was under no compulsion to defend, or to justify in reaction to criticism. The report has the least possible resemblance to the brief of a special leader.

The findings are as to the careers of all the persons placed on probation in the first half of the year 1915, in courts selected with a view to getting at a state average. An entire interior county (Hampden) with cities such as Springfield, Holyoke and Chicopee, and a rural population as well; the textile city, Fall River; an old town with industrial development, Salem; a seat of learning, with large suburban population, Cambridge; the extreme of metropolitan conditions, the jurisdiction of the Boston Municipal court; the superior court in two counties—these were the field of inquiry. In them were gathered 2,114 case histories, ample in number and sufficiently varied in kind to give the desired cross-section of the operation of probation in a state which uses the system in every criminal and every juvenile court. From this material is extracted the significant facts as to the careers of the persons who were treated on probation in the period of seven to nine years since that experience, along with the methods used by the probation officers and, back of that, the social factors in the problems these cases presented to the court at the initial point. The results displayed reflect painstaking field work, most marked in its success in the juvenile cases; the careers of 92 per cent of the juvenile offenders of 1915 were completely followed, although they often led to distant parts of the nation.

THE spontaneous query as to any correctional process is as to how the offenders subjected to it have conducted themselves beyond the period of treatment. It narrows to the point of behavior that has, or has not, led them again into court. It is answered in this report as to probation in this fashion. Out of 383 men who were placed on probation in 1915 after conviction for offenses of a serious nature (drunkenness, vagrancy, domestic failures excluded) 245 (64 per cent) have had no court record in the years that have elapsed. Of these men only 46 (12 per cent) are known to have been committed to institutions for these later offenses. Moreover, the group includes those men who were demonstrated failures during their probation and who were surrendered and committed to institutions because of their failures. If the permanent effect is tested by the subsequent careers of those who were carried through probation—who received the full treatment, so to speak—it is shown that, of these, 76 per cent have been free from later court record and only 3 per cent have eventually landed in institutions. The notion that probation discharges offenders back into the community only to supply the courts with continuous offenses and eventually to help fill penal institutions is effectually dispelled.

Applying the simple test of subsequent court appearances to other groups of offenders, it is shown that of the family deserters (non-supporters) 74 per cent have not again been in court on a similar charge. Of the men on probation in connection with a suspended fine for drunkenness, 74 per cent are free from later court record; for suspended fine for violation of ordinances and traffic rules, 60 per cent, and under such suspension for "general offenses," 70 per cent. The lowest immunity, if that be a fair word to use, is among the drunkenness cases, half of these offenders being again in court. Of the women probationers 74 per cent are without a later court record. Of the juvenile delinquents, 56 per cent have no later record—a showing which is subject to favorable qualifications.

What these percentages seem to establish is that the use of probation in Massachusetts has brought about a measure of subsequent obedience to law on the part of offenders who were given its benefits that fully justifies the claim for it which has hitherto been made without such evidence in its support. They completely upset the casual criticism that the grant of probation is an invitation to further offending. They demonstrate that the institutional burden is not only immediately but permanently relieved. In the face of

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this showing, recidivism will have to be accounted for in other directions than in the field of the courts' exercise of their supervision over offenders during a period of out-door treatment. Towards this conclusion, the survey by the commission has contributed an argument of human experience that it may be safely assumed no other correctional system could supply as to its success. No other correctional department, to be sure, deals with offenders under such favorable conditions. In a state like Massachusetts, the others have to deal with the failures of this primary device—with those who utterly fail to respond to its efforts—and, if in no other way, the primary out-patient method justifies itself by the extent to which it sifts out those whose conduct may be successfully corrected without incarceration.

The relief of the institutional burden is not alone indicated by the great number who are placed on probation—amounting in Massachusetts to an average of 26 per cent of all convicted persons—but quite as pointedly by the fact that of the men who were on probation for the general offenses only 12 per cent ever reach an institution for subsequent offenses; of the non-supporters, 20 per cent; of the inebriates, 22 per cent; of juveniles, 10 per cent.

IN the Massachusetts law there is no limitation in the use of probation to first offenders, with the result that it is not infrequently employed for persons with considerable previous court record. The report makes a study of the relative success in its use with those who previously have been convicted and those for the first time in court. The showing, in the case of adult offenders, is such as might be expected: that the repeated offenders respond less satisfactorily. They have court records subsequent to probation to the extent of 65 per cent and their eventual commitments to institutions rise to 25 per cent. The commission is not convinced that the relatively bad showing argues for a limitation of probation to first offenders. It meets this development in this significant paragraph.

> This comparison raises a question as to the use of probation for repeated offenders. The repeaters make a distinctly less favorable showing while on probation, have a disproportionate court record for offences after probation, are much more generally surrendered and committed to institutions, and constitute nearly all who, after probation, for other offences are again committed. But the answer as to limitation of probation to first offenders has also to consider the fact that even among those who had a prior court record 45 per cent were satisfactory in their probation response, only 20 per cent had to be surrendered and committed, 36 per cent have no court record since probation and 74 per cent have not been committed to institutions since the probation term.

Nor does the Massachusetts law limit the use of probation according to the offense. The 381 men who are classified as "general offenders" were convicted of a wide range of offenses, some of them of an extreme sort. "It is evident," says the report, "that the courts exercised great discretion in the selection of cases for probation in respect to the seriousness of the offenses committed." It finds 25 men in the list who had committed an extreme crime, and that of these only two have again been in court for the same offense, only four others for any other offense and only three have been committed to institutions, two of the three being so committed as the result of surrender for violation of probation conditions.

An extended study is made of the operation of the non-support or desertion law, in which probation is actively employed. It is directed first to the success in the collection of money from probationers for the support of their families under orders of the court and, next, to the later domestic developments. Compliance with court orders was complete in 68 per cent of the cases and partial in 14 per cent. Complete failure resulted in only 13 per cent of the cases.

During the probation term there is a favorable showing as to improvement in home conditions. In the years that elapsed, the fortunes of the homes involved are indicated in the following outcome in 155 cases: divorce, 20 (13 per cent); continued separation or desertion, 33 (21 per cent); wife in insane hospital, 5 (3 per cent); widowed, 8 (5 per cent); couple living together, 62 (40 per cent); disappeared or information incomplete, 27 (18 per cent). The fact that the eventual reunion of husband and wife is more general than their continued or subsequent separation is significant of the value of the proceedings which are set in motion by complaint of failure to support. The use of probation in illegitimate child cases is discussed briefly because the radical new law of 1913 had been hardly more than a year in operation at the time of the cases studied. In a limited field of 51 cases, the study shows complete compliance with the court's orders in 65 per cent and partial compliance in 20 per cent of the cases. In only two cases was settlement reached by marriage and the Massachusetts police is evidently against regarding marriage as the uniformly desirable solution of the problem. Of the 51 children in the cases, 9 died in early infancy; 8 are with the parents (married after adjudication); 6 are with the mother, who is married; 5 are with the mother, who is unmarried (and presumably one more, the mother having run away with the child); 10 are adopted; 3 are in orphanages; 1 boarded out; 1 in the state's charge; with no clue as to 7.

A detailed study into the operation of the suspended sentence to pay a fine appears in the report. It has an interest to Massachusetts, where it has operated to relieve the jails of thousands of inmates. It is reassuring as to the extent to which the fines are paid, there being only 60 (12 per cent) out of 487 who failed to pay, and as to the non-imprisonment, only 20 (4 per cent) having to be committed for failure to pay. That it had a restraining effect is shown by there being no subsequent court record for 230 (55 per cent).

Probation in suspended-fine cases is hardly more than a correction device but the courts may make it reformative in the same degree as in other classes if they choose. In a recorded case, the court saw the larger chance and improved it.

> Louis B. was arrested for drunkenness. His offense was noisy intoxication on the street. He was an Italian and testified that he drank wine at home with each meal. On the evening of his arrest he drank more than usual, went to a motion picture show, and after being in the close air all the evening came out much excited. He was regularly employed and earned $22 a week—$10 was paid to the family, $2 in instalment payments on a building lot; the balance he could not account for. The court fined him $15, suspended the payment, ordered him to pay $3 a week for five weeks and at the end of that time to deposit the same amount weekly in a savings bank for the remainder of a year, his probation term, thus acquiring the savings habit, also to conduct himself properly and report regularly to the probation officer.

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In its study of juvenile delinquents, the report is most elaborate. The 312 cases were those placed on probation in the ordinary district courts in the first half of the year 1915. The only distinctively juvenile court, that in Boston, was not included as the survey sought to show the average operation in the state. The principal study is of boys, of whom there were 296, ranging in age from 8 to 17, and in court because of widely various offenses, 131 for larceny, 76 for breaking and entering, 15 for stubbornness, 13 for assault and battery and the rest of all sorts. Two having died during probation, 294 are followed.

With an average age of 14 when placed on probation, the boys now average to be in their 23rd year. Of the 294 boys, 128 (44 per cent) have had a court record subsequent to probation, and 52 (18 per cent) have been committed to institutions. The commission comments upon the fact that 82 per cent of these boys who were eligible to commitment when placed on probation have avoided that experience throughout the seven to nine years since their probation, but goes on in its analysis to show that while they have averaged four years beyond the juvenile age only 65 (22 per cent) have an adult court record. Of the 239 boys who completed probation without surrender and commitment 143 (60 per cent) have had no subsequent record and as many of these record-events were for repeated juvenile acts, 81 per cent have had no adult court record in the four years. Only 10 of this group of 239 have been committed by the adult courts for offenses more serious than drunkenness and violation of an ordinance.

A study of the present habits and work records of the boys (now men) shows that 22 are in the army and navy; of the 197 civilians it appears that 153 (78 per cent) are regular workers and that 171 (87 per cent) are known to be non-drinkers.

The restraining effect of probation is further tested by a record of the lapse of time before a second court appearance. From these tables the peak of recidivism is shown to be within the period of between two and three years after probation—half of the boys with a subsequent record not being in court until within the third year or later. The recurrent use of probation is defended, in the face of the fact that it is less effective after the first trial, on the ground that "the rescue of the proportion of boys (on second or more frequent probation) is large enough to justify its repeated use."

An elaborate study of the habits of the boys as disclosed at the time of their court appearance in relation to their response to the effort of the court in their behalf and to their later court record works out the conclusion that those of no recorded bad habits are (as might be expected) the best in behavior while on probation and comparatively free from later records, while certain habits are proved to be prognostic of continued trouble, the stealing habit the most so, and disobedience next, while the factor of bad associates yields to probation both during its period of supervision and in later life.

Home conditions in relation to response to probation and to later court records show that boys from homes with both parents present and no bad conditions failed on probation to the extent of 10 per cent, those from broken homes to the extent of 30 per cent and those from homes with one or both drinking parents to the extent of 40 per cent. The incidence of later court records follows the same order, with 40, 50 and 66 per cent as the relative showing. Of eventual court commitments, for post-probation offenses, the order persists, with 9, 14 and 42 per cent —the leading of nearly half the boys who were carried through probation in institutions later in life being the striking reflection of the disordered home.

The application of the showing of the permanent effect of the background conditions, the report argues, does not suggest a more restricted use of probation. This seems an obvious conclusion. It would be a singular surrender if the courts should reject cases on the basis of unfavorable conditions. To quote from the report:

> Every case presented to the court is individual and the profitable use of probation is based upon full knowledge and understanding of each delinquent and all surrounding conditions. . . . The rational and practical answer is that those delinquents whose history or personality shows the presence of factors that forecast more trouble should have special effort made in their behalf. They are the real challenge of all correctional devices, probation along with the others. The challenge is to be met by a serious and specially directed effort.

By showing the better outcome of a probation term of from one to two years than of one of less than a year, the commission urged the longer probation for the cases with unfavorable background. But it puts its emphasis upon a selective treatment, as against the uniform method of supervision for all cases, which it declares is the outstanding fault of the system.

In no cases out of the 2,000 adult and juvenile, does the commission find that a mental or physical examination was made in 1915. It makes note of some advance in this direction in later years. And it points out as demonstrated by later developments in some instances and by reasonable presumption in many others, that widely different treatment and vastly better outcomes would have resulted had there been a resort to expert aid in arrival at the status of the delinquent and his need of special treatment and training.

Probation comes out well from this study of its consequences. While much of the report will be valuable chiefly to the courts there is material in it for a wider application. It is a serious message from Massachusetts, which now carries 17,000 convicted offenders on probation and only 3,400 locked up, to states which still rely upon incarceration as the indicated remedy for ill behavior.

HERBERT C. PARSONS

Psychiatric Social Worker?

Dr. Alfred Ostheimer raised the question, at the All-Philadelphia Welfare Conference, whether the term psychiatric social worker really meant anything. If all good case work must be built on psychiatric principles isn't the line to be drawn between good and poor social case workers rather than between psychiatric workers and some other kind? Miss Robinson's paper amplified this thought so significantly that The Survey asked permission to quote parts of it.

IT is frequently assumed, particularly by the medical profession, that the contribution of social work to mental hygiene is to be made by a small-in-number, highly specialized group of social case workers known as psychiatric workers. I should like to put forward, on the other hand, the conviction that all social case work, in so far as it is

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thorough and in so far as it is good case work, is mental hygiene. Case work not founded on the point of view of personality and adjustment for which mental hygiene contends is simply poor case work, superficial in diagnosis and blind in treatment.

The vogue of the psychiatric worker dates from 1916, when out of the war need of social workers ready to step in to hospitals and handle mental cases, there was developed a training course at Smith College to give to people with some background a quick introduction to the extreme maladjustments they would meet in war hospitals. Following this training effort other schools of social work, particularly those in New York and Pennsylvania, introduced courses in social psychiatry which later developed into departments of psychiatric social work. But more and more the tendency has been to require the courses in psychiatry of all case workers and more and more the understanding of personality developed by psychiatry has got over into all the case-work teaching. Psychiatry has contributed tremendously to social case work since the war in deepening the case worker's understanding of personality and of the significance of family and social relationships, but it has not developed, I think, any new skills or techniques for the handling of special kinds of personality.

Let me illustrate by the kinds of problems students doing their practice work in case agencies are attempting to handle today (I am choosing at random from the actual problems which students in a second term of school are now working on):

> The adjustment of two young married people complicated by a health problem in the woman and the presence in the home of a dominating mother-in-law on whom the son is accustomed to depend; the problems of a woman of 28 struggling to adjust to the death of her husband and to work out some plan whereby she can give ten hours a day to mill work to provide food and shelter for her three children and at the same time give them the care and training to which they have been accustomed; the placement of a girl of eleven, illegitimate, whose mother committed suicide recently and who has never had at best more than a temporary home with one family of relatives and then another, various reasons contributing to force the child to pass on (in one home the aunt was having periodic depressions and was afraid of a complete breakdown; in another an aunt and her husband were seeking divorce and finally obtained it, breaking up the home); the task of assisting a mother who has no equipment but ignorance and a concern for her child to help that child to understand and react healthily to an unfortunate sex experience.

These are the every-day problems of family and children's agencies; they are some of the problems of living today. Anyone who essays to assist people to live more adequately and happily must be prepared to understand and participate constructively in such problems. Faced with them we cannot but feel that all the understanding of the motive forces of character we can get from psychology and psychiatry, all the skill in making sympathetic, dynamic contacts with people and all the technique of manipulating resources to wrest from the environment the needed opportunities, that we can gain from social case-work practice, are none too much to bring to the solution of such problems.

In Philadelphia, as I listen to case conferences, I hear more and more evidence of a deepening understanding of personality, more and more feeling for the significance of an individual's experience, more and more appreciation of the importance of attitudes, more and more conscious skill in working with attitudes, changing, re-educating them—in short, more and more practice of mental hygiene. Credit for this significant progress in social case work must be given first, I think, to the sheer effect of experience with cases worked over by the minds of intelligent thoughtful workers; second, to the contact with a few good psychiatric and psychological clinics where the doctors and psychologists have spared no pains to give the social worker all the understanding their specialized knowledge could bring to bear on her case; and third, to the classes which these same doctors and psychologists have conducted for social workers and students in the School of Social and Health Work.

VIRGINIA P. ROBINSON

Should Mothers' Assistance Be Supplemented?

IT is almost universally admitted that the widowed family should be preserved intact. Compensation and widows' pension legislation indicates the decision of modern society to make provision for half-orphans very much different from that which governed the large endowments for orphan asylums of many years ago. If the Jewish Welfare Society and many other social agencies are still forced to devote most of their work and their funds to the same problem, it is because the theoretical recognition of the rights of widows and half-orphans has not yet led to legislation sufficiently liberal to make private relief effort unnecessary. It is, I believe, the duty of social agencies and social workers to point out the inadequacy of legislative provision. But it is also their duty to make such liberal provision voluntarily, so long as legislative provision remains insufficient. For, after all, I take that to be the guiding principle of social work as a whole—the voluntary communal assumption of social obligations, which always does and must run ahead of compulsory assumption, the accomplishment by voluntary self-taxation of such duties as compulsory taxation is unable to assume.

With its present appropriation, the Mothers' Assistance Fund in Pennsylvania admittedly does about a 50 per cent job. The average waiting period until a widow, who may comply with all other legal requirements, can be put on the payroll of the fund is from 18 months to two years. If you consider that compensation legislation usually began with a waiting period of 2 or 3 weeks, that this waiting period proved to be entirely too long, and that under pressure from labor as well as from legislative experts the waiting period has been reduced in most of the states to 7 days, the comparison will indicate the serious nature of the problem which the Mothers' Assistance Fund is still unable to meet. Those in charge are fully aware of the situation, but the insufficient appropriation leaves them no choice. Widows must be placed on the rolls of the fund in proper order, without any influence or bias, though I have often thought that it would be better social justice if all the newly widowed families could be immediately provided for, even if it were necessary to drop an old family each time a new claim arises. For surely the first two years of widowhood are those that present the most difficult problem of adjustment.

Until the appropriation has been raised to the necessary amount, the Jewish community through the Jewish Welfare

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Society meets the obligation, with the result that no Jewish family in Philadelphia has to be broken up in consequence of an untimely death of the breadwinner.

Many of our families thus taken care of for some reason or other can never comply with the legal requirements of the Mothers' Assistance Fund. These must be carried along until the children are old enough to make the family self-supporting. There are others who in due course of time are taken over by the fund. Of our 50 or 60 widowed families, some 20 have reached that point and have, nevertheless, remained beneficiaries of our agency as well.

The wisdom of this procedure has been questioned, and therefore the theory underlying it must be stated. If children are to be brought up in their own home, that home must offer the minimum, normal economic standard. As yet, the scale provided for by the Mothers' Assistance Fund does not offer such a minimum standard in families containing no other breadwinners. If we are to insist that the children shall remain with their mother in order to preserve for them the normal spiritual atmosphere of family cohesion and affection, such as no substitute can offer, this must not be accomplished at the expense of minimum physical well being. The spiritual values will mean very little if the children in their own homes must suffer from want, malnutrition, or bad housing. It may be impossible, and even undesirable, to offer these children in their own homes all the comforts, and even luxuries which are within reach of wealthy orphan institutions. It is not the duty of society, and it is a mistake on the part of private philanthropists, to put an economic premium upon widowhood, orphanage or dependency in general. It should not be the duty of relief agencies, in dealing with dependent families, to raise their standard of living above the average normal standard of the masses at large. But a physiological standard of health, decency and efficiency must be preserved. In many families the scale of the Mothers' Assistance Fund does not guarantee these elemental needs. Until these standards are raised, the Jewish Welfare Society will continue to supplement the state and county allowance.

The situation is only met half way if, with such an allowance, the mother is still compelled to go out to work and neglect the very purpose for which widows' pensions have been established, namely, to devote herself to the care of her children. A woman's career is a possibility in the middle classes, where the earning capacity of the professional woman is sufficiently high to allow for employment of help. It may be possible that with only one or two children (in which case, as a matter of fact, the Mothers' Assistance Fund does not render any assistance) day nurseries may be utilized as a makeshift, particularly in case of deserted women where an ample budget may prove a demoralizing factor. But a good old-fashioned family with four children or more is entitled to a full-time mother, and a full-time mother can do a fairly good job only with an ample budget.

Information as to costs of living and necessary minimum standards is readily available. A comparison of the scale of the Mothers' Assistance Fund with such minimum standards readily discloses the inadequacy of the former. The Jewish Welfare Society tested its own family budget by comparison with such standards as the budget of the Bureau of Municipal Research. In offering our families a budget of about 85 per cent of the standard budget, we feel that we have struck a fairly safe road between inadequacy and excessive liberality.

It is argued that in thus meeting a responsibility which the state has failed to meet, we are simply relieving the state of its liability and delaying the day of greater social justice through legislation; that the failure to relieve the need would act as a greater stimulus to our legislators. I am not going to raise the question whether the assumption of so great a degree of sensibility to social needs on the part of our legislators is justifiable. I know of no state in which the sensibility of a lawmaker to moral issues has ever been subjected to psychometric examination! But I feel that social agencies—through the methods of family care and financial relief—are in a much better position to bring to light the inadequacies of existing laws than isolated families, overworked and underfed widows, could possibly be. After all, it has not been the sum total of individual complaints, but systematic investigation and agitation by social agencies that has given us what legislation we have.

Be that as it may, my philosophy of social work does not recognize the necessity of ignoring individual suffering, or leaving it unrelieved, for the purpose of social demonstration. The social conscience should not stand by, indifferent to the break-up of families today, for the sake of stimulating better provision for families tomorrow.

I. M. RUBINOW, M.D.

IT IS NOT for lack of information that public provision for the dependent and handicapped in the District of Columbia is still "illogical, wasteful and intolerable," as William Hodson calls it in his preliminary report to the Commission on Public Welfare Legislation. As long ago as 1875 the District commissioners urged the consolidation of public agencies under one authority. In 1897 a joint select committee to investigate the charities and reformatory institutions in the District of Columbia—a congressional body—brought in a report still worthy careful study. In 1918 the Monday Evening Club of Washington—a social-worker group—invited the department of child-helping of the Russell Sage Foundation to make an intensive study of child welfare work in the District. That study, made in 1918 and 1919, and revised in 1922 in the light of subsequent developments, has now been published by the foundation under the title Child Welfare in the District of Columbia, by Hastings H. Hart (Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey). Mr. Hodson, who is, of course, the present director of the foundation's division of child welfare legislation, has been loaned to the District code commission as consultant.

EVERY YEAR in the United States more than 200,000 persons suffering permanent physical disabilities are added to the army of the handicapped. Of these it is estimated that nearly 100,000 can be returned to economic independence if given adequate service in the way of vocational rehabilitation. While a program for this service has been undertaken by 36 states with federal leadership and financial assistance, there was no voluntary organization, national in scope, in this field until the National Committee for the Disabled was recently launched. This committee has as its purpose the development and direction of a national interest in the welfare of the disabled. The budget for its first two years of work is assured by the Commonwealth Fund, the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial and the trustees of the Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men. Headquarters for the committee have been established at 245 East 23 Street, New York.

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EDUCATION

Where Is the New School's Community?

EDUCATION is never a private function... It does not go on inside the minds of individual children. It is always a matter of changing relationships and of social understandings or misunderstandings. No school, no teacher can build a wall around the experience of a child and mark off a part of that child's world as being concerned with education, privately. The assumption that such private growth could take place was probably the fundamental fallacy of the older "cultural" education; but even that older cultural tradition assumed the existence of a cultural community within which this privately cultured mind might eventually find a local habitation and a spiritual home. A school without its own community is an unthinkable contradiction. Where, then, is the community of the "new school"?

The answer to this question is being seriously sought by the most intelligent new schools. Our existent communities are disorganized, drifting at the mercy of winds and waves and tides of prejudice, and controlled, if controlled at all, by traditional leaderships in industry, politics, morality and religion. They seem, therefore, to belong peculiarly to our existent, conventional schools. And practically all new schools reject the thought of making peace with existent community ways and ideals, or lack of ideals. But, if the existent communities are to be rejected, where shall the desired, and necessary community be found? Three answers, all of them essentially fallacious, have been dallied with.

The first answer has been that "The homes of the children will provide the community the children of the new school need." This solution of the problem is not more than twenty-five per cent sound. It holds for those children in whose homes are found real understanding of and sympathy with the program of the school; and it holds for them until such time, only, as they begin to find the need of a world larger than the home. It would be safe to assume that not more than half the homes from which children are recruited to the "new school" understand what they are getting into; and it would be fair to estimate that even such homes offer a real community life to their children for not more than half the period devoted to education. That is to say, this answer, at best, holds for not more than one fourth of the problem.

More than anything else, insurgency needs education: the sort of education a New School, alone, can give.

The second answer has been that "The New School educates for an 'ideal community.'" "Children should be educated without respect to the future," says one advocate of this solution. "Today is not to be considered as a preparation for tomorrow: Today is its own excuse for being. Educate the children for today, and when tomorrow comes, they will be prepared to live as human beings should live. Properly educated children will just naturally make a proper community!"

This answer might be satisfactory if there were any way of segregating the children from the world outside the school, and of disposing of the traditional institutions and controls by which their lives are inevitably surrounded as soon as they leave the school. Over against this beautiful "ideal community" stands, quite complacently, the real community, disorganized and drifting, no doubt, but still quite able to deal with "ideals" in severely realistic fashion. Too often, this talk about "ideal communities" is but a means of escape from the problem of dealing with real communities.

The third answer, and the one most generally offered, has been that "The children educated in the New Schools will go out and make their own communities." Of course, this solution ignores the real question. None the less, it is the most plausible reply that has ever been made by school people to critics of their work. This reply does not belong exclusively to the new school people. It belongs to the older generation: it has been, for unnumbered ages, the "alibi" of the adult in the presence of the critical looks of his children. It reserves to the adult the privileges of criticism without subjecting him to any of the penalties; and it enables him to enjoy the evils of the present while, at the same time, he protects his children from those same evils by educating them to the duty of curing those evils. It says: "We ought to get rid of those evils—but not in our time, Oh Lord!" It repeats the thoughtlessness that brought upon some teachers of old a celebrated rebuke: "You lay burdens, heavy to be borne, upon the backs of little children, but ye will not touch them yourselves with so much as the tips of your little fingers." It is all very well for conventional schools, with their specious reasonings that "the public schools are the hope of the country," to be advocating this solution; but no New School can escape its problems in such casuistic fashion.

Where, then, shall the New School find its community? The satisfactory answer to this question will reveal a touchstone of the New School's intellectual candor. What is that true answer?

Education is always a matter of social relationships. Children are not educated for schools, nor even for education. Eventually, they must find themselves out in the world, facing the realities of industry, government, religion, morality and art, with whatever freedom or unfreedom the fortunes of life have permitted them. The fight for what the New Schools call a "free education" is, therefore, a fight for an abstraction, or for a bit of nonsense, unless at the same time parallel struggles for freedom in industry, government, morality, religion and art are being waged. Education is not an isolated, or a private, function: "free education" means little, if anything, unless it is linked up with freedom in industry, in govern-

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ment, and in all the other interests and activities of a normal human life.

Of course, such a suggestion opens up a quite appalling prospect. The real community of the rebellious school is not yet in existence; but the fragmentary elements out of which it will eventually be formed can be seen—and tentatively listed. These varied fragments of our old community life, out of which the slow processes of time are slowly molding the New Community of the genuine New School, are a rabble lot, an appalling lot! But the new school has no monopoly of the rebellious, critical and creative spirit. Every aspect of our contemporary life can show its rebels, its critics, its creative minds: can show them—and condemn them!

Count them: industry abounds with them; they range from emotional rebels who don't know what they want to intelligent men and women who, sometimes, know only too well just what they want, and who would rather ruin everything than change their methods by a hair's breadth. Government and politics know their rebels, too. And the church. And morality—against which rebellion becomes, of course, doubly immoral. And art is mostly rebellion, now; "but that's as much as you could expect of those artist chaps."

From Ontwikkeling en Uitspanning, Brussels

In every field of interest, the machine dominates, and freedom tends to disappear. The industrial machine; the political machine; the religious machine; the moralistic machine; the educational machine: machines all—and every machine eventually hitches up with every other machine, becomes almost completely synchronized with all the others, and helps to turn out that standardized, produced-in-quantity output—industrial, political, religious, moral, educational—which is the boast of all our Babbitts.

Rebellion against one of these machine-dominations is rebellion against all of them. The real friends of the New School are not in the old schools. The difficulty is that all these rebellions have risen in separate compartments of our disorganized community life; hence, these movements not only do not know each other, but most of them are more or less contemptuous of one another. Here and there some slight rapprochement has been attempted; notably between the rebels in religion and the rebels in industry. Elsewhere, these forces either do not know of the existence of each other; or, if they know, they stand and glower at each other. This is especially true of the relation of educational rebels to rebels in all other lines. The real community of the educational rebel, that is, of the New School, is in these fragments of rebellion against all other institutionalisms. But acceptance of such a community would subject the educational rebel to banishment from the ranks of "educators." He is already outside those ranks; but he wants to retain some shred of his old respectability—teaching was once "the noblest of the professions." He would still rather be a doorkeeper for the National Education Association than to dwell in the tents of wickedness.

None the less, here, and here alone, will the New School ever find a true community. It is true that community does not exist, as yet. Not all rebels welcome the free mind that the New School wants to develop. But rebels need education: that is to say, they need help in subjecting their emotions to analysis, for the purpose of finding out whether there is substance of the future in those emotions, or just the froth of windy-guff. They have no such help, today, or very little of it. That's why their rebellions get nowhere, for the most part. More than anything else, insurgency needs education: the sort of education a New School, alone, can give.

And the New Schools need a social objective; not merely a private and personal objective, such as they mostly have today. That objective, it goes without saying, can be found nowhere but in the elements of a real community, the personal and social materials of a social order. The New School may look, longingly, back to the flesh pots of existent community life: it will find going back impossible, save on terms imposed by those to whom it goes back. The way lies ahead: the rebel in one field must eventually become the rebel in all fields. The rebel in education must consent to cast in his lot with rebellion (but not, necessarily, with all rebels) in industry, government, morality, religion and art. He who would fight for freedom of mind must fight for freedom of the hands, of judgment, of conscience, of taste and of the spirit.

This may be a hard saying. It may put the New School in a difficult dilemma. But, if our New Schools are intellectually candid, they will not be unable to find their true communities. J. K. H.

This College Education

A LECTURER once made this suggestion to an audience: "Fathers and mothers, turn your children loose and let them scrap things out for themselves." The first response to that suggestion came from a solid, substantial citizen, who said: "But I don't want my boy to have as hard a time as I have had!" The somewhat quizzical answer of the speaker was: "What's the matter with your boy?"

I suppose that it is characteristic of parents to seek security for their offspring and characteristic of the offspring to accept security with avidity. Perhaps it is officious to

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long for the other thing. To submit to life because it offers a reasonable amount of comfort and has provided us against a poorhouse old age seems not half so sensible as foolish to me. To do the accepted thing in a quiet way and perhaps to suffer in silence may be the most heroic thing to do; but it is not the most interesting. The silent struggle may be the greater one; but why not have more fireworks and more fun to it; why not have an apparent struggle?

Here is my point, speaking from the angle of a former college girl, of college girls in general.

College is the paved sidewalk to life. There it lies. Some of us are coaxed and others coerced into taking the trip over it. Some few whiz down it in kiddiecars or scooters, but the most of us trudge over the whole of it on just our two feet. And at the end of it a man with a benevolent smile hands us a weapon called an A. B. degree, and wielding this we take the next step.

And thus we ooze into the jobs to which our degree entitles us. College fits us to earn our living in a respectable way with our wits. Under no circumstances must we take a menial job unless it be as a stepping stone to an executive position, or to get local color for a novel. We learn to stick to our class; in other words we dare not marry a man who is not a "college fellow." We shrink from the contamination of associating with people who are uncultured or immoral according to the etiquette of the day, and we shrink from facing financial shortage. In other words we cringe. We are afraid. One might almost say—thus *college* doth make cowards of us all.

And the joke is decidedly on us. Some day perhaps we will realize that the poor downtrodden factory girl, the domestic servant and the store clerk have a lot better time than we do. They sell their hands, their backs, and their legs for just barely enough to live on. We have been to college and have learned to do something "better." We sell our brains for more than enough to live on. They keep their brains and their good digestion.

That sounds like heresy, I know. We are the ones who are supposed to have a monopoly on the brains. As a matter of fact, we haven't. I believe the average college girl does less independent thinking than the average non-college girl. Just because we can rattle off a lot of stuff that somebody else has thought out and pronounce his name correctly doesn't mean that we are more intelligent. My advice to any college girl who doubts my word is: Go to work in a factory for a while. You will soon discover what an inferior brain you have, and furthermore your fellow-workers will realize it as well or better than you. At first it may be a blow to find out that they have sense as well as you. But, before you are through, you will admit, I am convinced, that they not only have sense, but what they have is their own while yours is a foreign concoction. And by the way, you will be working harder most likely than you ever have in your life before, and for that reason, perhaps, you will be having more fun.

I don't know why it is, but in more cases than not a college education seems to put a girl into a plaster cast from which she never escapes as long as she lives; and thus she misses about eight-tenths of the fun of living.

Perhaps the solution would be to turn girls loose right after high school, and not permit them to enter college for eight or ten years. Probably they should not even go through high school, because it is in the last few years of high school that the plaster cast process is begun. Fourteen, I think, would be a good age. The Lord only knows what they would do to themselves. Perhaps some of them would break themselves all to bits, which would be a pity. And yet they would be preferable even so to the deadly, stereotyped smug creations in the way of women which colleges are putting out now.

CLARA TRENCKMANN

Education in Appalachia

CAN ideas be imported? Can that which has made Denmark "the most literate and prosperous country of Europe" be transplanted to this country? Denmark has "an enlivened, enlightened citizenship." That is to say, the Danish people have been awakened "from the narrow bounds of ignorance and environment; they are alive to true values and they want those true values." This awakening has come as the result of the development of *adult schools*. Could something like this come to America? These questions were discussed, and tentatively answered by Olive D. Campbell, at the Southern Mountain Workers' Conference, in Knoxville, in April. Mrs. Campbell has but recently returned from a year's study of these adult schools in Denmark and Finland.

This educational movement began in Denmark seventy-five years ago, when the country was impoverished as the result of long wars. It has had a three-fold development, economic, political and religious. On the economic side, it brought to the common man freedom from the great landlord and a recognized right to the land. With this came better methods of tilling the soil, use of fertilizers, etc., and finally an entire change in the agricultural production; a change from corn growing to animal products—butter, cheese, bacon and eggs. This opened the way to the development of the cooperative movement, which, in its culmination, has made the people the controllers of their own production.

In its political aspect, the movement was first one of enfranchisement of the people, and then a long, but successful, struggle for adequate representation in parliament. The farmers now rule Denmark.

On the religious side, freedom was secured first within the state church; but other groups are now allowed to worship in their own way, and to select their own pastors.

On the wave of the movement came the "People's Colleges," as the expression of this movement, and a champion of all of its phases. "The aim of these schools was to awaken, enliven and to enlighten the people, not through the imparting of exact knowledge as such, but through the 'living word,' which means simply that the warm, emphatic, spoken word—the living expression of a personality—is the medium through which the spirit is reached and stirred, far more effectively than through books, the 'dead word.'" These schools are small, often having fewer than a hundred students. They are like large families, with the teachers a part of the whole, and each student having full opportunity to feel the personality of the teacher. In general, the schools run for five months during the winter for the young men, and three months during the summer for the young women. The approach to the student is made through cultural studies: the language of the country, its geography, history, literature, and its constitution, on the theory that these

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belong to all and should be enjoyed by all. Naturally, the student cannot be stimulated all day, nor must he be allowed to fall into the habit of receiving passively. Arithmetic is, therefore, usually a daily subject, with book-keeping and mechanical drawing; and gymnastic exercises and singing. The songs consist of Danish hymns, folk songs, national and historic songs, nature songs, etc.; they are a part of the daily school life, and in turn have become a great part of home life in the country. The student takes all this home and fosters it in young people's societies and lecture clubs found in each little community. The result has been that Denmark is now considered to have the broadest general culture in Europe, and an extraordinarily contented and prosperous civilization.

The situation in the Appalachian mountains at the present time is like that of Denmark of earlier days. The Southern Mountains are a rich country naturally—rich in timber, coal and other minerals, and even possessing rich soil over much of the area. Some of the land has been taken by companies who are, for the most part, merely holding it; other areas are being developed. This is especially true of Kentucky, where companies now own whole creeks and the land on both sides. There are many folks renting on "company land" "a-shifting and a-moving" as one renter explained it; though another said, "it seems as if a man can't be respectable if he doesn't own land." Many mountain people own their land. Where land is still in the hand of the owner, or where it may be secured, there is hope of helping the mountain farmer to make the difficult transition from the agricultural mode of life of his forefathers, to that which will enable him to meet unshaken the flood of industrialism and modern life which in places has swept in and already wrought great havoc. To those who love the Highlander, and respect his old independence, even through some of its meaner aspects, it is unthinkable that he should be allowed, without a strong effort to become a permanent tenant on the land of his fathers, to be driven from it, or to become the industrial servant of those who took that land from him. All sentiment is against it. All the hope of a sound rural life in the mountains and elsewhere is bound up in it. But until the people *want* better schools, want them enough to pay for them, until they want a better economic life, enough to combine and work together for it—to *cooperate*—the conditions of the Highlands will not change greatly for the better. The young people who can escape to another environment will do so; the weakened reminder will grow increasingly weaker, and the church and other philanthropic associates will continue indefinitely to pour in money and help.

There are places in the mountains where a healthy rural civilization is not possible because of certain peculiar topographical conditions. The help of science is needed to determine whether these areas can support even the present population. In other places the process of draining out the best has gone on beyond the hope of help to the community. These places are not many in comparison to the whole. Over much of the mountain country the main need is encouragement—the need for the people to be encouraged to *want*. If they are awakened, they will act for themselves, and here is the opportunity, the peculiar service, open to the church and independent agencies in the Highlands.

Present educational methods in the mountains now spend much time preparing a few to compete with the world. A different education is needed. The adult school of the Danish type would give, year by year, to an increasing number, a glimpse of *what might be*, and an increasingly awakened and enlightened citizenship would solve the problem of the country. We would thus be making the people shoulder their own responsibilities. We should have "centers where the adults can hear of the history of their local area, and from this develop into every interest in the community. The instructors should lose themselves in association with, and study of, the people, until they become a part of them. Help the people to love themselves, their bodies, their souls, their homes, their forests and fields and hills, their memories and the spiritual products of the people. When such love is awakened, they will experience the energy that is required for joyful work, right thinking and conscientious obedience."

A sense of a new life for the southern mountains appeared in the description of these methods of awakening adults to new interests and purposes. A new viewpoint was given for work and activity. A new education must come, not of set lectures, with examinations and marks; but an education of the spirit, interpreting the beauty of life in the hills and the mountains, and preparing the people of the country-side to cope with their own problems and with the intruding world.

ARTHUR H. ESTABROOK

THE PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION has changed its well known bulletin into a full-fledged magazine, Progressive Education, A Quarterly Review of the Newer Tendencies in Education. The first number was issued in April. The press work is of the finest quality. The articles deal with problems of individual instruction in the new schools. A fine picture of Charles W. Eliot makes an excellent frontispiece. The magazine will be published by The Progressive Education Association, Washington, D. C.

WALTER DILL SCOTT, president of Northwestern University, has denied, publicly and officially, that the university had, or has, any intention to expel the thirty-eight conscientious objectors, whose activities have cast a sort of lurid glare over the headlines of Middle West newspapers. No one, he says, knows exactly who the thirty-eight are. Some of them are known, of course; two, one man and one woman, are shortly to represent the university in particularly public ways. "The faculty of the College of Liberal Arts of Northwestern University has made no attempt to discover the names of these students because the college authorities assume that they, in so expressing themselves, broke no law of the land, violated no regulations of the university, and committed no breach against common decencies."

THE TEACHERS' UNION of New York City is proposing to establish an experimental school within the school system of the city. The union is now engaged in preparing plans for such a school and in persuading the school authorities to authorize its establishment. The reasons for this move are set forth by the proponents as follows: "In order that the public schools may keep in touch with the social and intellectual progress of the world, there must be frequent examination of the institution of public education, its ideals, its machinery, and its effectiveness. At all times the public should demand such tests of education as will indicate the nature of the results that are being obtained. Wherever results are unsatisfactory, and whenever signs of stagnation are apparent the public school system itself would seem to be justified in undertaking experiments by which renewed vitality may be developed for the inspiration of all, and the institution of public education preserved for its high purpose."

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SURVEY READING LISTS: NUMBER SIX

The Rural Community

By E. C. Lindeman

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT served as the broadcasting station whose function it was to inform the American people that a rural social problem existed. During the intervening two and one-half decades the process of enlightenment has run the gamut of sentimental fancy, argumentation based upon opinions and interests, investigation and finally scientific method. The resultant literature has been, perforce, without unity and cumulative power. A disturbing hiatus between the writings of the prophetic reformers and the realistic investigators, between the social as distinguished from the economic emphasis, and between the religious and secular approaches persists throughout.

The five published reports of the American Country Life Association constitute the only consistent and consecutive sequence in rural social science literature. But even these volumes represent extractions of thought rather than historical sequences of thought development based upon evolving researches. The attempted scheme of accomplishing continuity by means of specialized standing committees has not been wholly successful. Committees cannot serve adequately as integrators of thought until provisions are made for frequent face-to-face conferences. Thus far the rural interest has not arrested the attention of those who might provide the financial resources necessary for such a procedure. With all its handicaps, the Country Life Association has, however, succeeded in formulating the outline for a sustained literature.

The volumes and monographs before me as this is written do not in any sense constitute a complete bibliography; nor do they adequately represent all that is best in this sphere. They serve only as indicators of current interests and emphases; but in this restricted sense they may be regarded as fair examples of the more complete literature. My purpose is not to prepare judicious statements of contents but rather to evaluate this increasing literary output according to arbitrary and personal modes of comparison.

Sanderson, Burr, Hayes, Thompson, Taylor, Zimmerman and Kolb are chiefly concerned with the problem of rural social structure. Their search is for the unit of rural

Mr. Lindeman Suggests

THE FARMER AND HIS COMMUNITY, *by Dwight Sanderson. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 1922. Price* $1.25 *

Intended for the farmer but more suitable as a text and as a reference for social workers. The title is actually descriptive of the contents.

RURAL ORGANIZATION, *by Walter Burr. Macmillan Co. 1924. Price* $2.25

The 'ought' rather than the 'is' of rural organization. Those who wish to know *how* to do things will like it.

RURAL COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION, *by Augustus W. Hayes. University of Chicago Press. 1924. Price* $1.25

The unit of rural civilization finally discovered; unconvincing.

THE SOCIAL AREAS OF OTSEGO COUNTY, *by Dwight Sanderson and Warren S. Thompson. Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin 422.*

The unit of rural civilization tentatively discovered; more convincing.

SERVICE RELATIONS OF TOWN AND COUNTRY, *by J. H. Kolb. University of Wisconsin Research Bulletin 58. 1923*

What the town owes to the country; a scientist's revision of the later sections of Main Street.

SOME RURAL SOCIAL AGENCIES IN OHIO, *by C. E. Lively. Ohio State University Agricultural Experiment Service, No. 4, Vol. XVIII, 1922—1923*

Revealing that not all social work is controlled from New York City.

THE STANDARD OF LIFE IN A TYPICAL SECTION OF DIVERSIFIED FARMING, *by E. L. Kirkpatrick. Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin 432.*

This may prove either why people leave the farm or why they don't.

RURAL ORGANIZATION (*A Study of Primary Groups in Wake County*), *by Carle C. Zimmerman and Carl C. Taylor. North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin 245*

The difference between the North and the South exhibited through social forms, *post bellum.*

RURAL CHILD WELFARE, *prepared under the direction of Edward N. Clopper for the National Child Labor Committee. Macmillan Co. 1922. Price* $3.00

Proving that child labor exists outside of textile mills.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE COUNTRY COMMUNITY, *by Warren H. Wilson. Pilgrim Press. 1923. Price* $2.25

History, social theory and one good sermon in a revision that is not mere repetition.

THE TOWN AND COUNTRY CHURCH IN THE UNITED STATES, *by H. N. Morse and Edmund deS. Bruner. George H. Doran Co. 1923. Price* $2.50

How long can a social institution live after death? A partial answer to this question of institutional pathology.

THE CHALLENGE OF AGRICULTURE (*The Story of the U. F. O.*), *edited by M. H. Staples. George N. Morang, 386 Victoria St., Toronto. 1921. Price* $1.25

They do it in Canada without Soviet labels.

THE FARM BUREAU MOVEMENT, *by O. M. Kile. Macmillan Co. 1921. Price* $2.00

How the farmers have imitated chambers of commerce.

THE COUNTY AGENT AND THE FARM BUREAU, *by M. C. Burritt. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 1922. Price* $1.25

The much-tutored farmer and his governmental tutors.

TOWN AND COUNTRY RELATIONS, *Proceedings of the Fourth National Country Life Conference, 1921. University of Chicago Press. Price* $2.00

Beyond hitching-posts and rest-rooms, but not far beyond.

COUNTRY COMMUNITY EDUCATION, *Proceedings of the Fifth National Country Life Conference, 1922. University of Chicago Press. Price* $2.00

Education without consulting the patients.

COUNTRY PLANNING, *by Frank A. Waugh. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 1924. Price* $1.25

Beauty without benefit of urban art and artificiality.

ORGANIZED COOPERATION, *by John J. Dillon. The Rural New-Yorker, 333 West 30th St., New York, N. Y. 1923. Price* $1.00

The Freudian wish of a market director whose directions were not followed.

COOPERATIVE MARKETING, *by Herman Steen. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1923. Price* $2.00

How agriculture imitates Big Business without demanding special privileges.

THE MODERN FARM COOPERATIVE MOVEMENT, *by Chesla C. Sherlock. Homestead Co., Des Moines, Iowa. 1922. Price* $2.15

The movement may be modern but the book is not.

* *The prices given include postage from The Survey*

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civilization—a search which owes its impetus to two sociological concepts: Cooley's *primary groups* and Galpin's *trade-area community*. It is rare to find in the annals of any particularized science so large a body of research material following upon the statement of isolated concepts. I have not subscribed to the implications of either concept, nor does it seem to me that the studies serve as adequate verifications, but this does not deter me from offering high praise to those whose scholarly and scientific efforts have provided this body of objective materials. Few studies of urban areas can match these efforts for integrity and objectivity. The volume by Burr, which is included in this list because its point of departure is similar, in reality deserves a place among the more didactic as distinguished from the scientific works.

J. J. Lankes

How the farm family lives and how its social needs are met are the problems dealt with by Kirkpatrick and Lively. Kirkpatrick has without doubt illumined a perplexing set of factors which are central to the total social problem, namely, the values involved in the standard of living. The difficulties which complicate any effort at scaling values have not all been overcome, but here is at least a painstaking and commendable approach. Rural child labor as a differentiated social problem is ably handled in the National Child Labor Committee's interpretation of field studies. This volume, together with the later works of Fuller on the same topic, should receive additional attention now that Congress is considering another constitutional amendment which will be broad enough to include the rural child.

The Evolution of the Country Community, as originally published, exhibited a unique and neat method of combining social history with social theory—a parallel method which has been too far neglected. The volume made its initial appearance at the time when young professionals were beginning to think of devoting their careers to the rural field, and its appeal created a profound impression. The new edition, which has been thoroughly revised, appears to have lost none of the verve and style which, combined with unique methodology, made the earlier edition by far the most readable volume in its sphere. It has become a by-word among rural investigators to assert that whatever Brunner finds out through research need not be associated with his personal opinions. His latest study, which is a collaboration with Morse, retains the usual proportions of objectivity coupled with daring interpretation. Both Wilson and Brunner are primarily interested in the country church, but what they learn in pursuance of this interest reveals pertinent values for the total rural-complex.

Although the rural problems of Canada and the United States are similar in most respects, the respective routes of solution differ. Occupational consciousness is not regarded as heinous betrayal of the Constitution in Canada and hence agricultural organization frankly assumes political forms. In this connection one might suggest the values of comparing the story of the United Farmers of Ontario, as told by Staples, with the story of the Farm Bureau Movement, as interpreted by Kile.

Now that city people with time on their hands have discovered what they are pleased to call "workers' education," it may not be amiss to remind them of the widespread system of adult education which agricultural people have enjoyed in one form or another for more than a half-century. Burritt devotes his volume to the latest phase of this movement, namely, the education which is conducted under the auspices of county agents (farm advisers) and through the channel of farm bureaus. Unhappily the emphasis of this education is so largely vocational and technical that it scarcely deserves the title of education, if by this term we mean something more than the application of science to material objects. This was not true, however, of the education of the earlier phase which did not suffer the standardization of strict governmental control. Country Planning, as depicted by Waugh, is a concerted effort to restore and create beauty in the countryside, not as a thing of and by itself but as part of general rural economy.

Cooperative marketing of farm products, together with its multitudinous implications, is for the moment the most significant aspect of American agriculture. No doubt many books will issue from the source of this interest. None will likely be poorer than those by Dillon and Sherlock and few will be able to contend with Steen for wealth of fact and standard of interpretation. The volume by Sherlock supplies what Steen neglects, namely, an account of those numerous though small local cooperatives which are to be found in the Middle West. Sherlock stands in fear of the possibility of linking the cooperative movement with socialism and his consequent attempt to interpret cooperation as merely another form of profit-taking is pitifully emasculating. Dillon's cocksure, non-experimental affirmation of principles is unconvincing although he comes dangerously near saying what ought to be said to those who follow the enthusiasm of Steen for commodity cooperatives too religiously.

In so far as the volumes and monographs briefly discussed here give indication of trends of thought, the indication is unmistakably in the direction of sound researches and hence is hopeful. Perhaps we shall be obliged to await the digestion of these researches before a coherent literature can appear. In the meantime, students with synthetic capacities should essay the task of preparing a reliable textbook on rural sociology for the use of that growing body of students who are in need of enlightenment as an antidote to confusion.

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BOOK REVIEWS

The Most Winning Figure in the World

"THE greatest things in art have been done by men who preserved all that is beautiful in a traditional form, while expressing through it a transforming content. That is what he wants to do in politics." —So, Iconoclast of Ramsay MacDonald. And so this book itself. For its severest limitation is the thing that engages—the thing that may safely be counted upon to do greatest smashing among the false images of the Labor Premier ensconced in British middle-class imaginations (clearly its chief purpose)—the thing that will fascinate American readers, get something of MacDonald's message across to them, and make this little book more valuable at this juncture than the British Ambassador at Washington.

T. R. long since whetted our national appetite for supermen; with the war we were ready to take them at a gulp —Wilson and Hoover, Lloyd George and Clemenceau and Foch; and by inversion or tangent, Kaiser and Hindenburg, Lenin and Stinnes and Mussolini. And here is exhibited such another, even truer to our "traditional form" of canal boys and rail-splitters become president. "One would give a good deal," says Iconoclast, "for a picture of MacDonald when, like Dick Whittington and with hardly more luggage, and no cat, he came up to London with only that bright talisman of native genius to promise something bigger than a Lord Mayorship." Shades of Ben Franklin and his three loaves! Could anything fit more neatly into our native predilections; anything strike more deftly that chord which in their various ways Carnegie and Barrie and Ian Maclaren thrummed to the undoing of our hearts toward all Scotch boys; anything make us sense more surely that this rise of a workers' government in England may be something akin to our own struggle for democracy; anything prove a more humanly persuasive carrier for a "transforming content" of thought (economic, political, international) which in coming to us must overcome greater barriers than leagues of ocean; must span those differences in industrial situation and social outlook and post-war psychology which make England today both the older and the fresher country?

"Events mark your road," is a saying of MacDonald's own; "they do not indicate the purpose of your journey." The limitation of the book referred to is that so far as its narrative goes, this might almost be the story of an artist, of a preacher, or, to use the author's favorite comparison, of an architect—of a political leader who by capacity, endurance of obloquy and suffering, by determination and work and humor and vision, had made his way. This is no disparagement of these professions; MacDonald does not suffer by these comparisons. Only, he has been something besides and there have been others beside him. He has been an organizer of a cause—of something deeper and more embracing than a cause, of an organic, social process. There have been other organizers. And again he does not suffer by comparison. It has been no whim of fortune that has made him the spearhead of the movement at the stage when it has emerged from a position of opposition to responsibility. Since his elevation to the premiership, his has become the most winning figure in the world today; his voice the friendliest. His place in the hearts of the common folk of Western Europe can only be compared to that of Wilson's when he came to Versailles; but with this difference. Their trust in him is the trust given a leader who has already gone through his wilderness; the "one true man in a world of liars." But back of his leadership and those about him, range formations of men and women, who not for one year, or ten, but for the span of their lives have slowly girded their strength, have stretched their tent ropes to take in newer and ever newer recruits to their following, have come forward on the common road. It may be that history looking back will again personify it all in one man. We speak of Cromwell's time. But it may be that history itself will yield to the social impulse through which MacDonald and his kind hope to transmute so many of the institutions which have come down from less democratic epochs.

While the book before us thus fails to give a picture of the team play and the mass movement of British labor, the writer's sure instinct for individuality (rather than for the common elements) has not stood in the way of luminous expression of the "purpose of the journey." Rather Iconoclast has revealed that purpose as a living thing in analyses of lithe charm and patient driving force,—of character and leadership in process—in syntheses of MacDonald's writings:

> His final achievement cannot yet be estimated, but there is a great thing he wants to do. The transformation of the social structure, the emancipation of the workers, the definite and planned substitution of cooperation for competition as the principle, and service for profit as the motive, in social organization, national as well as international, is, whether or no it be feasible, a great design. He has pursued it, without relaxation or impatience, throughout his active life. . . .

The reader who is stirred by the story of Ramsay MacDonald and wants to know line and text of the British Labor movement, may find it with accuracy, order and completeness in Mr. Blanshard's handbook. The old English histories began with the charted family trees of the Kings. Here, in whimsical contrast, is a frontispiece chart of the great labor formations—the Trades Union Congress, the Labour Party, the Workers Educational Association, the Cooperative Union and their affiliated bodies. The book brings the standard texts of the Webbs, the pioneer interpretations of Arthur Gleason, to date; covering developments through 1923, such as the more recent amalgamations, the Emergency Powers Act and the land program of 1921 brought out under the title, "The Labour Party and the Countryside."

PAUL U. KELLOGG

J. RAMSAY MACDONALD: THE MAN OF TOMORROW, *by Iconoclast; with an introduction by Oswald Garrison Villard. Thomas Seltzer. 286 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

AN OUTLINE OF THE BRITISH LABOR MOVEMENT, *by Paul Blanshard. Introduction by the Rt. Hon. Arthur Henderson. G. H. Doran Co. 174 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

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Rubbing Elbows with Russia

THE FIRST TIME IN HISTORY. *by Anna Louise Strong. Boni and Liveright. 249 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS book is vibrant with the impact of experience. After two years in the very thick of Russia's ferment, Miss Strong writes with all the vigor and dramatic quality which flash from contact with stirring events. Vivid picture and concrete incident follow each other in rapid succession, fresh from the note book of a quick and keen reporter. The reader, to an unusual degree, has the feeling that he himself is rubbing elbows with and listening to the people who speak and act on every page. Miss Strong plunged into her Russian experience with expectant enthusiasm, and her account of people and activities in Russia is heightened in its effect by the way in which she herself was stirred.

More than theoretical treatises on Russian political and economic development, we need "contact prints" from every part of Russian life, if we are to gain true insight into the forces that are beginning to shape the new Russia, and are to have adequate basis for our thinking. No one observer can give us more than a fragment of the picture, and that from his or her own particular angle of observation. Miss Strong shows us, from her intimate touch with the leaders and the rank and file of the governing group in Russia, what this group is doing and thinking about—their struggle to systematize and coordinate effort, their search for practicable ways of progress toward the goal of their communist ideal. And not without sympathetic understanding she gives us here and there a glimpse of the inevitable and overwhelming tragedy in which individuals have been and are engulfed during the process of such profound change as Russia is undergoing.

The completely rounded picture would be possible only if we had similarly direct revelation of what every group and element in the Russian people are thinking about and doing.

Miss Strong is earnestly sympathetic with the struggles of the Bolshevik group to guide the development of the new Russia, and she bears testimony to their sincerity, which no one who has had any contact with them can doubt. She sees frankly the dictatorship of "one-half million communists over one hundred and thirty million people." She points out for example, that professors of history and economics, "if they would hold their jobs, must learn as fast as may be to be Marxians." But such facts do not disturb her. She sees them as necessary to a larger purpose. In view of this frank recognition of control by a small group, it is difficult to accept her strong emphasis upon "common consciousness" as the great new thing in Russia. "Many nations," she says, "have acted and felt as a unit under transient emotions of war time. But never has a great society in control of a nation, organized persistently and with common mind, the energies of peace." The "common consciousness" is of course supremely true with reference to the communist party, but it remains to be seen what the common consciousness of the Russian people as a whole will prove to be through the next several decades.

One strong impression, however, which this book contributes is that both within the communist group and outside of it the stirrings of the new life in Russia are more and more vigorously being manifested. In her chapters on industry and the money power in Russia, she tells of the spirited conflict of interests of the different administrative groups within the government—for example, how those responsible for managing industries were pulling one way, and those managing the banks another; how the oil workers of Baku voiced their "bitterly caustic complaint" over the prior consideration which they felt the government department of foreign trade gave to prospective concessionaires in oil.

All signs, as reported by each returning observer of Russian conditions, point to this stirring of new life amongst all the people. The new economic policy, and many other modifications of Bolshevik plans have resulted from the pressure arising out of the flow of the mass life. Miss Strong points out that the Bolshevik leaders have their eyes fixed upon an ultimate goal and regard modified policies of the present as temporarily expedient. But as one reads Miss Strong's book his mind continually recurs to the question whether the evolution of the common consciousness of the Russian people, larger than that of any group, will not in the end profoundly influence the tenets and plans, as well as the year by year policies and activities, of the Bolshevik themselves.

Although Miss Strong is sympathetic with the ideals and the struggle of the communists, one finds in her pages a deeper sympathy—with the aspirations of mankind in the mass. Her love for the Russian people was manifested by her devoted service in famine relief, in the course of which she underwent the ordeal of typhus. She is thus one of that legion who as a result of living amongst the Russian people have both love for them and faith in their future. Wherever that future lies, and however life may prove to be larger than the most carefully devised channels intended for it, these believers in Russia look forward to the great contribution which they are confident Russia will give the world, not only in music, literature and the other arts, but also in the democratic outworking of civilization.

G. R. T.

The Mahatma

MAHATMA GANDHI, *by Romain Rolland. The Century Co. 250 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS is the best study of the great-souled Gandhi which has appeared. The spirit of the author is in tune with his subject. Though lacking in critical analysis, the book portrays the essential elements in the Mahatma's character, and presents the salient features of the Gandhi movement.

It is impossible to deal with Gandhi as an individual alone, because he is the incarnation of a great social, racial, and religious movement. He did not create the movement, he is rather its own creature—its highest personal expression. India has always been a non-resistant nation. Century after century she has been conquered and subdued, but with the utmost patience and resignation. Any warlike qualities which she has manifested in her long history have been imported through the northern passes and accentuated by European contacts by sea.

It is of the utmost significance that just now the whole occidental world should be heeding Mahatma Gandhi's message and studying his character. Previously, the European races were too busy conquering other peoples and practicing the arts and crafts of imperialism to heed the still small voices from the East. The Orient's calm call to peace fell on deaf ears. But suddenly a world war of unprecedented magnitude and horror swept over us; we murdered

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the brothers of our own race, and demanded the assistance of every other race to help rend our enemies. Millions of our youth—English, French, German, Austrian, American, Italian—dropped the idealism which was their birthright, and plunged into the trenches of hate. They were shocked with the ruthlessness and craftiness of a militaristic civilization. The revelation was staggering. And now these same millions—those who have survived—are seeking a road of brotherhood. It is this post-war mind which gives Mahatma Gandhi's voice its power.

The author shows the dramatic experiences among indentured South African Indians which first awakened the Mahatma's soul. And he deals interestingly with his remarkable career in India since then. The secret of his power is not politics but religion, his passionate devotion to his ideal. The best commentary on the fundamental response of the Indian heart to such religious devotion is the way in which Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi has transcended his friend and teacher, Lokamanya Gangadbar Tilak, in the imagination of the masses. The one was the master political idealist, the other the religious devotee. In many ways Tilak was greater in thought and in personality than is Gandhi, but the religious abandon of the one lifted him above the other in the Indian heart.

Gandhi's complete revolt against every element in modern civilization will not be shared by those who take a long and comprehensive look into the past, or a prophet's look into the future. Nevertheless there is enough truth in his protest to cause the whole world to question seriously the materialistic conception of progress and to inquire into the spiritual possibilities of life.

Many occidental readers will find it hard to accept some of M. Rolland's conclusions as he likens Gandhi to St. Francis and to Jesus. Those who have sneered at Tolstoi's philosophy will find difficulty in yielding themselves to the viewpoint of either author or subject, although the bill of grievances is clear-cut and comprehensive. The social, religious or political bigot will find no pleasure in this book, unless he seeks light. The attitude of mind in which the student of current movements approaches it will largely determine his reaction. But it has a message for this hour. Students of the new day and all lovers of internationalism will here find refreshment and inspiration.

FRED B. FISHER
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The Immigrant In Industry

ADJUSTING IMMIGRANT AND INDUSTRY, *by William M. Leiserson. Published for the Carnegie Corporation of New York by Harper & Bros. 356 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE opening chapter of this informative study communicates the feeling, possibly unwarranted by the closeted facts, that Mr. Leiserson's book had some difficulty in being born. The adjustment of the immigrant to industry is a subject of which he has intimate personal knowledge. He himself has gone through the harassing process, not without scars, in spite of the distinguished culmination of his American career. The subject is one on which he has thought deeply and with the ardent concern for the future of America which is peculiarly characteristic of the high-minded patriot of foreign nativity. The present volume is the result of years of patient study and scientific reflection. One had expected to be led into its rich store of facts by such illuminating general observations as few men are equipped to make with Mr. Leiserson's authority. Instead the book begins haltingly, causing the reader to stumble into its ample interior spaces through a maze of not very happily summarized general statistics. That this chapter may have been reluctantly rewritten is suggested by occasional solecisms such as "the precentage are," "this effect of Americanization was quite displeasing," a question mark usurping the place of a period, and an unintentionally humorous misquotation of H. G. Wells—birthmarks indicating division of counsel at the critical moment.

We venture this speculation in the interest of the reader who might otherwise be impelled to turn back at the door. What lies beyond that first chapter is such a record of the life of the immigrant in industry and such an analysis of the problem—his and our own—of his mental assimilation and adjustment, as no one else has hitherto given us. For Mr. Leiserson brings to his task the first-hand knowledge of the immigrant worker, of the industrial counsellor and arbitrator, of the executive, and in addition to this experiential equipment, disciplined scholarship and a mature philosophic mind. As a result, he has given us more than a mere record of the processes by which the immigrant enters industry and is repelled or drawn into the herd; he has portrayed the evolution of fundamental American institutions as they shape and are shaped by the racial influences which flow into the American amalgam from ancient European and Asiatic sources.

This fact makes his chapters on The Employer and The Immigrant, and Organized Labor and The Immigrant, especially, contributions of unusual value to every American who cares to penetrate to the roots of American life. Both company unions and the autogenous trade unions take on a new significance in Mr. Leiserson's exposition. His appraisal of the Training of the Immigrant Worker by enlightened managers is highly illuminating. His documentation of Professor William Z. Ripley's statement that "our American unions ... are a mighty factor in effecting the assimilation of our foreign-born population" is admirably convincing, especially in view of his recognition and interpretation of the fact that "more unions have failed or neglected to organize the recent immigrants than have succeeded." His discussion of The Government's Responsibility and his proposals bearing upon A National Policy invite thoughtful consideration.

Whatever its natal difficulties, they did not damage the essential character of Mr. Leiserson's work. Adjusting Immigrant and Industry clearly ranks as standard among the volumes on the subject. R. W. B.

Wherewith to Think

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT, Its Nature and Conditions, *by L. T. Hobhouse. 348 pp. Henry Holt and Co. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

FOR twenty years, Hobhouse has been one of the critical and reconstructive thinkers of the English world. He began his work with studies in the evolution of mind, moved slowly over into the field of the evolution of morals and is now, as professor of sociology in the University of London, devoting his energies to studies in the field of evolution of society. This present book is the final one in a series of four, which includes The Metaphysical Theory of the State, The Rational Good and the Elements of Social Justice. "The

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first deals with the relation between the individual and the community; the second with the ends of human action; the third with the social relations subserving such ends; and the present one with the actual conditions underlying the life of societies and their bearing on the fulfillment of rational purpose."

Beginning with society—"Society is the tissue of human relations"—we note the development of "durable structures," of which there are three types: the kindred, the community and the state. A kindred is constituted by "descent and intermarriage," and is the most primitive form of a durable human structure. A community is made up of several more or less diverse kindred groups, all of whom "own a common rule of life." How this "common rule" was established has long been a debated issue. To some the basis of community is fear; others hold that its basis was, and is, consent; identity of interest seems to a third group the essential matter; while a fourth argument derives by analogy from the "organism." "The most probable hypothesis of the origin of the community is that it is a circle of intermarrying families." The state is the organ or system of organs by means of which the community maintains its common rules.

Many sorts of criteria have been advanced by means of which to measure *real* development of a community. The true criteria are four in number. "A community develops as it advances in (1) scale, (2) efficiency, (3) freedom and (4) mutuality." Scale indicates number of population; efficiency the coordination of functions in the service of desired ends; freedom means scope for human interests on the part of individuals; and mutuality, the extent to which all who serve participate in the ends of service. No one of these criteria is adequate as a measure, taken by itself. We are over-likely to measure all our communities, today, by the first two.

Four factors help to determine the outcome of development: natural environment; biological heredity; the psychological elements, ranging from primitive impulse to intellectual mastery; and the social factors, traditional, cultural, institutional. All these factors are almost inextricably interwoven and some of them are probably contradictory of each other. For example, the struggle for existence seems to be the antithesis to social progress.

As indicating the independent character of the discussion, the author's treatment of the pet idea of McDougall and Stoddard may be quoted: "As to the course of civilization, there is not the slightest reason to suppose the racial factor predominant. As between the numerous different peoples of the civilized world, there is no warrant for assuming any such radical difference as amounts to an inherited incapacity on the part of anyone for the arts and institutions achieved by another. Most, if not all peoples, are blends of different races, whose special contribution to the stock of qualities it is no longer possible to determine."

As in all the writings of Hobhouse, there is, in this book, an emphasis upon the developmental value of mind, and especially of the intellect, that amounts almost to a species of intellectualism. The fault is not as great here, however, as it was in earlier works, especially in his Mind in Evolution. And, in this book, there is a continuous inconsistency that is quite disarming. For example, the author says (p. 11): "Essentially the subject-matter of Sociology is the interaction of individual minds . . . moving in the mass on lines which no foresight of theirs has traced." It is obvious, in this statement, (the omitted words fill six and a half lines) that the term "mind" changes its meaning a bit from time to time. What is a "mind" that has no foresight? This somewhat loose use of words will seem to some a very great scientific sin. But let him who is without such sin, cast the first dictionary.

The argument herein presented is not for the reader's "leisure moment." One may not lightly accept the conclusions of the author; neither may he lightly reject them. There is substance of great discussion here. To anyone whose mind is still able to engage the problems of social reorganization today, who wants materials with which to think and irritating questions about which to think, this book should come as a great boon. Anyone who wants "practical plans" for getting something done will look for them in vain in this place. But the reader need not be afraid: after he gets through with the reading, he will either have the capacity to make plans of his own, or he will have come to the conclusion that no plan can be of any importance.

J. K. H.

The Whole Child

THREE PROBLEM CHILDREN, *published by the Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency. 146 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THREE Problem Children might easily lead the layman unfamiliar with the work of Dr. Bernard Glueck and Dr. Marion Kenworthy of the Bureau of Children's Guidance, New York, to believe that such case histories as these are ordinary every-day affairs to be expected of any child guidance clinic anywhere. It seems hardly fair to submerge so completely the unique conditions and the distinguished leadership under which work of so rare a quality has been done.

These records of the study and treatment of three difficult children prepared for publication by Mary B. Sayles of the staff of the Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency constitute, without doubt, the most satisfactory popular presentation of case studies which has as yet appeared. Unlike the case studies of the Judge Baker Foundation, this material is developed in a narrative form which makes it readable even to the uninitiated. Highly technical reports of physical and psychological examinations are given in full in the appendix but are not brought into the body of the narrative except in digested form as part and parcel of the interpretation of the child and his problem.

For the first time since psychiatry, psychology, medicine and social case work have been recognized as equally essential to the understanding and treatment of problem children, do we see the actual results of their united attack on the same individual at the same time for the same purpose. It is interesting indeed to read a case record where diagnosis and treatment are inseparable and where psychiatry and social case work flow together with such an organic connection that the writer has evident difficulty in deciding where one leaves off and the other begins. All of which simply bears witness to the excellence with which the work has been done and the rare unity of approach which can be achieved when the psychiatrist is imbued with the point of view of social work and the importance of social case treatment and the social worker is so filled with the interpretation of human behavior which she has gained from the

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psychiatrist that from the first both influences are present and are interwoven inextricably.

The three cases chosen, Mildred, Sidney and Kenneth, illustrate comparatively simple problems such as confront every school, every case-worker and every children's agency. The attitude of painstaking consideration of even the slightest details which might prove to have a bearing on the case, the careful investigation of all of the educational processes in which the child is engaged, the detailed inquiry into his daily program of work and recreation, the willingness to recognize all of his interests, prejudices, feelings, however trifling they may seem to the adult, are most valuable for getting over, to teachers, parents and children's workers who have hardened on the job, the difference between the disciplinary and the psychiatric approach to human behavior. Never before in published records have we had such careful, complete diagnostic studies carried over without break into an account of treatment equally detailed and specific. Record writing ought to profit tremendously from this pioneer attempt to analyze treatment step by step as consciously and deliberately as diagnosis.

It is noteworthy that no one of these children presents anything which could be called a sex problem. Although the factor of sex does enter two of the records, in no case does the improvement which takes place seem to be due to any direct dealing with a conflict or emotional upset immediately connected with sex. The fact that problems other than those pertaining to sex misbehavior are as interesting and as worthy of careful analysis as more spectacular cases is one which we tend to overlook in these days of Freud and the New Psychology.

The public school stands out clearly in every case as a cause of maladjustment and as one of the most essential factors in bringing about a readjustment when its cooperation can be secured or when a new school can be found to meet the needs of the child. Henry C. Morrison, professor of education at Chicago, closes the book with an interesting discussion of the part which the school has played in producing the behavior problems in these three cases.

One puts down the Three Problem Children with profound admiration for the work it represents and appreciation of the almost too successful way in which Miss Sayles has smoothed out and popularized the original records, but those who have a technical interest in the material cannot but regret that the genius which inspired the original work could not have made the final interpretation and given them the lasting value which they deserve.

JESSIE TAFT
Director, Department of Child Study, Children's Aid Society, Philadelphia

The Over-Arching Ideal

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE SPIRITUAL IDEAL, *by Felix Adler. D. Appleton & Co. 218 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

DR. ADLER'S Hibbert lectures are worthy to be kept side by side with those of his great predecessors, Muller, Renan, Royce and William James. His style moves in the placid rhythm of the English philosophical essay; his thought is expressed lucidly, candidly, provokingly. His distinguishing characteristic, perhaps, apart from the originality of his thought, is his clear analysis of the "spiritual pains" of our time.

Thus the first two lectures are the most valuable part of the book. The failure of the moral ideals held up before youth to convince or to satisfy, the need for a reconstructed aim in life that will grip men's wills and control their behavior—these are the principal themes carried through a discussion of human relationships in marriage, in social life, in international association. The insignificance of the individual in the light of modern scientific knowledge, the overwhelming sense of human waste, the strain of a divided conscience are the three symptoms of the doubt and dissatisfaction that afflict the spiritually sensitive.

With all the cynicism and revolt against authority he finds a profound desire for new ethical standards, for principles that can be applied equally to all human relations and that spring from experience. Dr. Adler helps the searcher for spiritual truth to understand himself and by such understanding to get a more satisfying recognition of his own place in the scheme of things. His philosophy is neither individualistic nor socialistic but distinguishes the ethical from the merely social, the highest aim of the individual from the merely egocentric.

It is not possible to follow Dr. Adler everywhere in the solutions which he proposes. The present reviewer feels that amid much practical wisdom on the subject of married life he exaggerates the part played by motherhood in the self-expression of women; that he denounces socialism, yet advances a scheme of industrial relationships which is unthinkable without social ownership and control of the means of production. Yet even where he least agrees with him, the reader feels grateful to Dr. Adler for his aid in arriving at greater clarity. And the main thesis of these lectures, the need for what he calls an over-arching ideal in which the indispensableness of the individual and his oneness with the world of the spirit are merged, is one in which one cannot at this time expect more than guidance. It will have to be worked out by the thought and experience of many generations to come.

B. L.

THE RUN OF THE SHELVES

Books are listed here as received. Many of those mentioned by name only in the classified sections below will be reviewed later.

Health

THE ELEMENTS OF VITAL STATISTICS IN THEIR BEARING ON SOCIAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH PROBLEMS, *by Sir Arthur Newsholme. D. Appleton & Co. 623 pp. Price $7.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

A PREVIOUS edition of The Elements of Vital Statistics by Dr. Newsholme, a generation ago, has remained up to the present time the "vade mecum" of all interested in the accurate measurement and evaluation of public health and social work. In a new and entirely rewritten edition, Sir Arthur Newsholme has gathered from his forty years of public health experience, both in the administrative and educational field—the author having been the "Principal Medical Officer of the Local Government Board, London, and Lecturer on Public Health Administration at Johns Hopkins University"—a crowning and authoritative resumé of all of the important elements in the vital statistics of both England and the United States. This reference work should prove invaluable if not indispensable for "medical officers of health and others engaged in public health and social work." Of the 600 pages, more than two-thirds are given to chapters replete with valuable comparative

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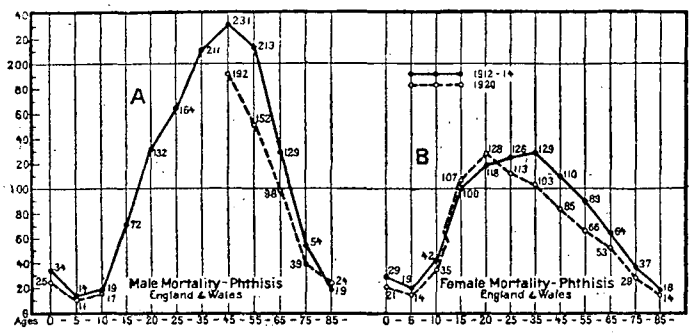
demographic data graphically shown and clearly explained throughout. The value of the material selected by a master hand and now made available can be better appreciated if we consider its subjects. These include data on population enumerations, importance of nationality and race, normal distribution of age and sex, marriages and fertility, birth registration and rates, infant mortality, morbidity registration, statistics of general sickness and accidents, causes of death, death rates crude and standardized, life tables, statistics of poverty, housing, alcoholism, of violence, of infectious diseases, tuberculosis,


A
B
1912-14
1920
Male Mortality-Phthisis
England & Wales
Female Mortality-Phthisis
England & Wales
Ages 0 - 5 - 10 - 15 - 20 - 25 - 35 - 45 - 55 - 65 - 75 - 85 -

From Sir Arthur Newsholme: The Elements of Vital Statistics

Following the conditions of war which had pushed young women into heavy industrial occupations, the peak of the female death-rate in England and Wales from pulmonary tuberculosis shifted forward from the age of 35 to that of twenty. Figure A gives similar date for men of the same age groups, the solid line in each case denoting the average mortality from phthisis 1912-14, and the dotted line the rate of 1920

pneumonia, maternal mortality and cancer. There are chapters on the measurement of child mortality which, in an age of progress in the development of health work especially in this field, must be studied by all concerned. To the elements of vital statistics, Dr. Newsholme has added a second part concerning the theory of statistical methods which covers the arithmetic of elementary statistics, study of causation, correlation, tests of physical and mental efficiency and statistical fallacies. Practical advice is also given for the preparation of graphic representation of statistics. Rarely has so complete a treatment of both practice and theory in vital statistics been made available for study from a source and authorship so experienced and from one who has faced in the field of public health and social work the actual problems of two leading nations in both the old and new world.

G. J. DROLET, M. D.

NUTRITION: THE CHEMISTRY OF LIFE, *by Lafayette B. Mendel. Yale Univ. Press. 150 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

TWO outstanding features of this book (the substance of which was given as a course on the Hitchcock Endowment at the University of California), are a wealth of comparative nutrition material and an excellent sketch of the history of man's study of nutrition from the days of Hippocrates and more especially during the last hundred years. Nowhere else can one get so clear a perspective in dealing with the achievements of such men as Liebig and Voit, for instance, and their influence upon popular dietaries as well as upon scientific progress in this field. There is no evidence of dogmatism or prepossessions in favor of any particular line of development. It is made clear that "The foundations of the current theories of nutrition have been laid in actual feeding trials." Calcium, phosphorus, iodine, vitamines, and other factors appear in their proper setting. The book will make a valuable reference for medical and dietetic workers who have difficulty in seeing more than a single aspect of the important new discoveries in feeding. The protein controversies represented by the opposing views of Liebig and Chittenden and the intricacies of human calorimetry are put into proper relations to the actual facts and to the great problems still open for investigation. "The fundamental chemistry of the nutritive process is scarcely understood in a single detail. The energetics of the organism have as yet been sketched in broadest outlines only. Although the significance of the 'little things' in nutrition is becoming better appreciated their function is by no means completely explained. Instinct is not always an unerring guide in the selection of food. . . . In any event the history of science should warn us against the dangers of dogmatism in the presence of so much that remains unknown or unexplained or unapproachable. Particularly when experience and science seem to be in conflict is it well to keep an open mind." Possibly the greatest need in discussions of nutrition for the use of men dealing with the growth and development of the human organism is a clearer recognition of nutrition as a process which includes the problems of the materials taken into the system but which must not be obscured by too exclusive attention to them. In the popular mind, and not infrequently among those of more technical interests, food and nutrition are taken to be practically synonymous expressions. We shall come in time to see that one might as well attempt to present the comforts of home in terms of fuel as to discuss nutrition mainly in terms of the food factor.

WM. R. P. EMERSON, M. D.

Nutrition Clinics for Delicate Children, Boston

NATIONAL HEALTH SERIES: *Cancer, Man and the Microbe, Community Health, The Baby's Health, Personal Hygiene. Edited by the National Health Council. Funk and Wagnalls Co. About 18,000 words per volume. Price $.30 a volume postpaid of The Survey.*

FOOD AND HEALTH, *by Inez N. McFee. T. Y. Crowell Co. 345 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE QUEST FOR HEALTH, THE HUMAN MACHINE, FOOD FOR HEALTH'S SAKE, THE YOUNG CHILD'S HEALTH, TAKING CARE OF YOUR HEART, *by the National Health Council. Funk and Wagnalls Co. 70, average number of pages. Price $.30 apiece postpaid of The Survey.*

Behavior

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY, *by Floyd H. Allport. Houghton Mifflin Co. 453 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS is an interesting book because it is a bold adventure into new fields. Professor Allport attempts to apply behaviorism to social psychology. He boldly challenges the whole scheme of "group" "crowd" "collective" and "class mind" psychology popularized by Le Bon and MacDougall and brings Watsonism and the behaviorist into the situation. There is no group psychology—that is the simple tale of it all. What psychology may be attributed to the group represents the behavior of the individual when he is given the "situation of a crowd." In the words of the author "there is no psychology of groups which is not essentially and entirely a psychology of individuals. Social psychology must not be placed in contradistinction to the psychology of the individual; it is a part of the psychology of the individual . . ." While the author accepts the behaviorist position as the most efficacious instrument for an analysis of the behavior of the individual in the group, he finds it necessary to bring in the concept of consciousness. He defines psychology as "the science which studies behavior and consciousness"—though it is not very clear from the text just what important function consciousness performs in group behavior for "consciousness . . . exerts no influence and therefore explains nothing in mutual reactions of human beings." The typical material in the older social psychologies, in the last chapter of the book, is restated in the newer terms. This is really an important attempt to give a fresh interpretation to "social psychology" and I for one wish that the author had gone the whole way and left consciousness out as a part of the method.

F. T.

Industry and Economics

AN INTRODUCTION TO SAFETY EDUCATION. *National Safety Council. New York. 93 pp. Price 30 cents postpaid of The Survey.*

IN the long fight for decommercialized workmen's compensation insurance, social workers have frequently found it necessary to oppose the private casualty insurance companies with vigor. They should therefore be prompt to recognize good work by these companies on every appropriate occasion. It is for this reason especially that we are glad to call attention to the remarkable safety campaign they are carrying on under the leadership of Albert W. Whitney, which is epitomized in An Introduction to Safety Education, a small book published by the educational section of the National Safety Council.

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THE AMERICAN LABOR YEAR BOOK 1923-1924. *Labor Research Department of the Rand School of Social Science.* 548 *pp. Price* $3.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

THE RAND SCHOOL of Social Science exists "to offer to the general public facilities for studying the principles, purposes, methods, and problems of Socialism and organized labor." It is the oldest and most ably conducted enterprise of its kind now in existence. Its large and well housed library and its carefully planned courses of instruction have given to thousands of wage-workers opportunities for a liberal education such as is not elsewhere available. But owing to its special interest in Socialism it has been the object of peculiarly arbitrary censorship during these late fevered days. This has complicated its already difficult financial problems, for only one-third of its annual expenses of $50,000 is covered by tuition fees. Under the circumstances, its preparation of this fifth issue of the American Labor Year Book is a heroic achievement. Previous issues of this unique publication have proved their value to students and laymen as a convenient work of reference on all phases of the labor movement. This fifth issue is much fuller, much more inclusive in its range, better edited and organized than its predecessors. It is a veritable encyclopedia on trade union and labor political movements throughout the world. Its digest of the international relations of labor, of labor banking, cooperation, workers' education, industrial and social conditions affecting labor and related subjects is made with expert insight. The Rand School and Mr. De Leon, director of its labor research department, have done the labor movement and its students a great service. R. W. B.

WORKMEN'S REPRESENTATION IN INDUSTRIAL GOVERNMENT, *by Earl J. Miller. University of Illinois Press.* 182 *pp. Price* $2.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

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W. E. BROOKS

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Foreign and International Affairs

THE FABRIC OF EUROPE, *by Harold Stannard. Alfred A. Knopf Co.* 260 *pp. Price* $3.50 *postpaid of The Survey.*

MR. STANNARD tells us in the introduction that part of his book "was planned and for the most part put together on air-raid nights as a nerve-tonic." Before publication it was enlarged and in part rewritten. The author was never quite able to mix his "nerve-tonic" with his later scholarly approach to the subject. However, the book is delightfully written and for the most part, penetratingly analytical. Mr. Stannard reduces the difficulties of Europe to two problems: the western question, that is the conflict as to whether Latin or Teuton shall unify Europe under its leadership; the eastern question, or the criss-cross of national paths in trying to reach the Mediterranean or to keep open the way to India. A glance at a post-war map will show the reader that the war did settle the latter question, at least so long as England can defend Iraq, Palestine, Hedjaz, Egypt, the Bagdad railway. English policy seems to agree with Mr. Stannard that, "If any State aim at world-empire it must base itself on the world's central line of communication,—the Mediterranean." This point of view is the backbone of traditional English Liberalism of which Mr. Stannard is an excellent representative—the traditional point of view that if the world must be parcelled out among the Powers England is as good a guardian as any and perhaps a little better. But should he therefore blame Germany for presuming to find "a place in the sun" so late as the twentieth century after "most of the earth's prizes had already passed into the safe keeping of others who had been beforehand with her in the settlement of their domestic issues?" The author seems to forget that history is still in the making. One cannot help wishing that Mr. Stannard had destroyed his nerve-tonic manuscript. If his discussion of Germany had been mellowed throughout by a greater degree of sympathy, it would have made valuable reading. But unfortunately the author loves

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the Latin and is contemptuous of the Teuton. His discussion of the American temper is excellent. It is shrewdly critical, tempered with sympathy and respect for our national development and difficulties. One agrees or one does not agree as the case may be, but certainly one could not ask for a better opponent with whom to disagree. A. B.

MEXICO, *An Interpretation, by Carlton Beals. B. W. Huebsch, Inc. 280 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

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THE INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF CHINA, *by Sun Yat-sen. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 265 pp. Price $4.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

CHINA'S REAL REVOLUTION, *by Paul Hutchinson. Missionary Education Movement, 150 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. 182 pp. Price, cloth $ .75, paper $ .50 postpaid of The Survey.*

REVISITS AND REVISIONS, *by Joseph Krimsky. Bloch Publishing Co. 148 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE INTER-ALLY DEBTS, *by Harvey Fisk. Bankers Trust Co. 367 pp.*

FIVE YEARS OF EUROPEAN CHAOS, *by Maxwell H. H. Macartney. E. P. Dutton Co. 242 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS OF BELGIUM, *by Thomas H. Reed. World Book Co. 197 pp. Price $1.60 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE COOPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN RUSSIA, *by Elsie Terry Blanc. Macmillan Co. 324 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE EUROPEAN STATES SYSTEM, *A Study of International Relations, by R. B. Mowat. Oxford University Press. 96 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE NORWAY YEAR BOOK 1924, *by S. C. Hammer. Sverre Mortensen Bokhandel, Christiania, Norway. 544 pp.*

Education, Ethics and Sociology

THE KU KLUX KLAN, *by John Moffatt Mecklin. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 244 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

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THE BIBLE AND LABOR by Joseph Husslein, S.J. (Being printed: probable price) $2.25
Labor in the Old and New Testament

Issued by Social Action Department
NATIONAL CATHOLIC WELFARE CONFERENCE
1312 Massachusetts Avenue
Washington, D. C.

CHILD LABOR FACTS (1924)—25 cents
POEMS OF CHILD LABOR—35 cents

Both just off the press, meeting the demand that the widespread discussion of the Child Labor Constitutional Amendment has aroused for new and authoritative literature and information on this subject. Sent post paid.

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THE CITY THAT WAS
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"The good old days" in "little old New York" are past, and we should be thankful. Romance to the contrary, this city was a dangerous and unpleasant place before the development of modern social work. Read *The City That Was* for a truthful, dramatic account of living conditions in 1865. 211 *pp.* $1.50

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been able to obtain from current knowledge. Of particular value, however, is the author's historical account of the political, religious and social backgrounds from which the resurrected Klan has sprung. He rightly condemns a tendency to attribute uniformly base motives to a movement that has so strong a hold on so large a section of the American people.

Some who know the South well feel that Mr. Tannenbaum in his recent book has exaggerated the drabness of existence in the small towns as an explanation of Ku Klux psychology. If that be so, then Professor Mecklin's account is even more exaggerated; for he dwells upon it throughout the book. One also wonders whether what he says about "salesmanship of hate" and exploitation of a state of fear kindled by the war can be psychologically true. Few people like to hate; and few Americans were put into a state of fear by the experiences of the late war. Particularly disappointing, however, is the absence of localized detail. To get a correct understanding of a movement so characteristically local in its manifestations, far more accurate description of typical situations and actions is needed than is at present available. The criticism may further be made that the most recent developments, foreshadowing a rapid disintegration of the Klan as a national organization, are hardly mentioned, although the reasons for considering the Klan lacking in permanent vitality are well displayed. The chief of these reasons is, of course, that the movement has come too late to ensure the racial predominance of the Colonial stock. Thirty, even twenty years earlier, there might have been some chance for building up an American nationalism on the basis of race discrimination. Today even a gigantic movement in that direction is doomed to failure by the simple facts of America's racial composition.

B. L.

BEDALES A PIONEER SCHOOL, *by J. H. Badley. Methuen and Co. Ltd., London. 231 pp. Price 7s.6d. (See Survey for February 15, 1924, page 531).*

FINANCIAL STATISTICS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES, 1910-1920, *prepared by Mabel Newcomer for the Educational Finance Inquiry Commission. The Macmillan Co. 188 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

CULTURE AND DEMOCRACY IN THE UNITED STATES, *by Horace M. Kallen. Boni & Liveright. 347 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

CHANGING CONCEPTIONS IN JEWISH EDUCATION, *by Emanuel Gamoran. Macmillan Co. 186 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

EDUCATION MOVES AHEAD, *by Eugene R. Smith. The Atlantic Monthly Press. 145 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

PSYCHOLOGY IN THEORY AND APPLICATION, *by Horatio W. Dresser. T. Y. Crowell. 727 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE COMMON WEAL, *by Herbert Fisher. Oxford University Press. 296 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

LAW AND FREEDOM IN THE SCHOOL, *by George A. Coe. University of Chicago Press. 133 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

ETHICS AND SOME MODERN WORLD PROBLEMS, *by William McDougall. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 256 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE BASIS OF SOCIAL THEORY, *by Albert G. A. Balz. Alfred A. Knopf. 252 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE ETHICS OF JOURNALISM, *by Nelson A. Crawford. Alfred A. Knopf. 264 pp. Price $2.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

Other Books Received

THE BELTON ESTATE, *by Anthony Trollope. Oxford University Press, American Branch. 432 pp. Price $ .80 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE THREE DERVISHES AND OTHER PERSIAN TALES AND LEGENDS, *by Reuben Levy. Oxford University Press, American Branch. 210 pp. Price $ .80 postpaid of The Survey.*

DEFEAT, *by Geoffrey Moss. Boni & Liveright. 264 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

SAYONARA, *by John Paris. Boni & Liveright. 317 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE HISTORY OF PENDENNIS, *by William Makepeace Thackeray. Charles Scribner's Sons. Vol. 1, 458 pp., Vol. 2, 432 pp. Price 2 vols. $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

HANDBOOK OF ENGLISH, *by James H. Moffatt and J. Leeds Barroll, Jr. 98 pp. Price $ .60 postpaid of The Survey.*

CHILDHOOD IN VERSE AND PROSE, *by Susan Miles. Oxford University Press, American Branch. 408 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

HEARING, *by Robert M. Ogden. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 351 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE DYNAMIC POWER OF THE INNER MIND, *by Brian Brown. Doubleday, Page & Co. 316 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

BARBED WIRE AND WAYFARERS, *by Edwin Ford Piper. Macmillan Co. 291 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE LOVE AFFAIRS OF WASHINGTON AND LINCOLN, *by Elton Raymond Shaw. Shaw Publishing Co. 70 pp. Price $ .75 postpaid of The Survey.*

PRACTICAL ELECTRO THERAPEUTICS AND DIATHERMY, *by G. Betton Massay. Macmillan Co. 401 pp. Price $6.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

"I HAVE READ this letter over a number of times and every time I read it it seems better," remarked a—well, a not unsophisticated member of Survey Associates the other day. When he went on to say that it was a well nigh perfect example of sales letter, we begged permission to print it. Here it is:

"My dear Mr.—

"Tomorrow is your birthday, and the Lying-in Hospital, for one, wishes to congratulate you, and send its good wishes.

"The Lying-in Hospital has made rather a speciality of birthdays. Since 1799, in fact, when the hospital was founded, our doctors have brought into the world more than 132,000 babies. A new one arrives every hour and three-quarters.

"To you, tomorrow may seem merely another milestone. To others, here with us, it will mean the beginning of everything.

"Of these others, there will probably be fourteen. Of the fourteen, the mothers of ten will be unable to pay for their care. The hospital always bears the expense of course. But it is sometimes assisted by contributions to the Birthday Fund—a fund for first birthdays, supported by those who believe in babies.

"Perhaps you may feel that a gift to this fund would be a pleasant and useful way of celebrating a birthday of your own. If so, I can assure you that a gift in any amount would be keenly appreciated; by the officers of the hospital, and by the ten needy fellow citizens who will henceforth share with you the natal day of March 18th.

"Sincerely yours,

(Signed) LeRoy A. Rutherford
Financial Secretary."

The recipient of this letter, apparently more appreciative than responsive, brought us this follow-up a few days later:

"Dear Mr. ——

"Those ten little babies I wrote you about on March 17th are here—nine days old and doing well. Their birthday, like yours, was a complete success.

"But they are still waiting to hear from you, and they leave day after tomorrow.

"May I tell their mothers that a friend of babies will pay for part of their care—through the Birthday Fund?"

That, we submit, is an exhibit of which any financial secretary could be proud.

SHELBY M. HARRISON celebrated May Day by beginning his service as vice-general director of the Russell Sage Foundation, to which office the trustees of the foundation appointed him at their April meeting. For the present Mr. Harrison will continue as director of the Department of Surveys and Exhibits, and in charge of the studies of social conditions of the Regional Plan of New York and Its Environs. Mr. Harrison graduated at Northwestern University in 1906 and did graduate work in economics and sociology at Boston and Harvard Universities. His first experience in social surveying was with the Pittsburgh Survey in 1908. From 1910 to 1912 he was one of the editorial staff of The Survey. He joined the staff of the foundation in 1912 when the Department of Surveys and Exhibits was established and he was appointed its director by the trustees.

THREE FELLOWSHIPS for graduate study in the psychology and education of the pre-school child, paying $1,000 each, are offered by the Merrill-Palmer School of Detroit for the year 1924-25. Particulars may be had from Mrs. Helen T. Woolley, director of the Nursery School. Applications are due before the end of the present academic year.

AFTER THREE YEARS in Australia, where he helped to organize the health department of the Commonwealth, Dr. A. J. Lanza comes back to the United States to become executive officer of the National Health Council, succeeding Dr. Donald B. Armstrong, whose appointment on the staff of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company was mentioned on this page last month. Dr. Lanza was formerly an officer in the United States Public Health Service and did notable service in the field of industrial health during the war.

"THE HOODED CANDLES, the low room, the running laughter, the merry ruddy face of Alexander Johnson gave the scene an old-world touch of his own England and the Mermaid Tavern." So Paul Benjamin writes of the dinner party in Indianapolis with which Uncle Alec's friends celebrated his forty years of service in social work. Hastings Hart was the principal speaker and most everybody brought or sent felicitations.

AS C. C. CARSTENS put it down at Philadelphia, "We don't know yet what institutions can do for children that foster homes can't do." But after discovering many things that foster homes can do and institutions can't, the next step is obviously to explore these other possibilities. The Child Welfare League of America, without slackening its indefatigable efforts to build better standards in placing-out, opened a new class of membership about a year ago to institutions which could qualify for a place among the elect. Half-a-dozen or more have come in, and Mary Irene Atkinson has recently come from the staff of the Ohio State Department of Public Welfare to shepherd these new sheep as director of the league's department of institutional care.

ABIGAIL F. BROWNELL, field representative in the Washington Division of the Red Cross, has gone to be director of the county agency department of the Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society, succeeding Lillian A. Quinn, who, as here noted, has joined the staff of the American Association of Social Workers.

SYRACUSE, where the Milbank Memorial Fund is carrying on a tuberculosis demonstration, has called Arthur W. Towne to be executive secretary of the Onondaga County Tuberculosis and Public Health Association. Mr. Towne put in four years work in Syracuse, with the Associated Charities and the Syracuse Boys' Club, before his work with the New York State Probation Commission and the Brooklyn Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.

NEW YORK'S first policewoman, Mary E. Hamilton, has been appointed to direct the force of policewomen in the metropolis, which now numbers about 100. She has recently put her experience and methods into a book, The Policewoman, Her Service and Ideals, which Stokes has just published.

WITH Dr. Welch of Johns Hopkins in the chair, the friends, associates and patients of the late Dr. Hermann M. Biggs paid tribute to his memory at a meeting at the New York Academy of Medicine on April 29.

THOSE SOUTHERN state boards know what good public servants women make. In Alabama the director of the state child welfare department, Mrs. L. B. Bush, has resigned after five years' distinguished service. Her successor, Virginia B. Handley, who has been Mrs. Bush's assistant for the past two years, brings New York School of Social Work and Columbia University training to the job, along with notable experience in child welfare work in France.

THIS IS THE KIND of program a good many chair-bound and ear-weary listeners would like to see tried out in American local and regional conferences of social work:

9:30 a. m. Formal opening.
11:00 a. m. Tea interval.
Continuation of discussion.
2:00 p. m. Paper on child placing.
Discussion.
3:30 p. m. Tea interval.
Discussion.
8:15 p. m. Special meeting for secretaries and workers.

Yes, it was in the British Empire—at Capetown, to be exact, where the sixth child welfare conference was held late in March. Isn't tea and talk a better formula than speeches and satiety?

DR. BERNARD GLUECK has resigned the directorship of the Bureau of Children's Guidance, New York, and the chair of mental hygiene at the New York School of Social Work, to devote himself to private practice.

CHATEAU d'ARGERONNE stands in the minds of some fortunate American social workers, for a pleasant blend of holiday and conference. Mrs. Edith Shatto King shoptalked about it in The Survey for September 15, 1923. Mlle. de Montmort, its owner, has suggested that American social workers planning to be in Europe this summer might care to form a group to spend two weeks at the chateau. Inquiries should be addressed to the Honorary Secretary, Argeronne, La Haye Malherbe, Eure, France.

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FORUM

Should Social Workers Lie?

THAT'S the brusque way The Survey put it, on the cover. Dr. Cabot was more polite. He headed his article "Veracity in Social Work." I am heartily with him, but for a reason which he does not mention. I am all on the side of the client. I admit that investigation is necessary. But it is not always nice. I have been investigated myself.

My objection to telling my client an untruth, or a half-truth, or deftly telling truths that will make him believe untruths, or keeping my mouth shut with the same result, has no connection with morality or immorality. It is that all such methods defeat their own ends.

The best information about a client's affairs which I can get is what I get from himself. We must know facts and many of them; we can never know all. So we must get the most important and they are how the client thinks and feels and hopes and fears and wishes. Compared with these any actual occurrence in his life is of trifling moment. So we must gain his confidence, and establish a thoroughly sympathetic relation with him. Our investigation is or ought to be the very opposite of detection. To the mind of a detective nothing matters but to ascertain whether some one did or did not commit some act. But a real investigator, like a real inspector, wants to know the habitual trend of some one's life and practices. Whether he did or did not do some act at some time is, or may be, a pointer to the knowledge we need. It is not the knowledge.

If a social worker, doing family welfare work, cannot win the confidence of his clients so that they will tell him all he needs to know about their affairs, he is out of place. I should advise him to get a job selling groceries or shoes, or soliciting orders for lightning rods or family Bibles.

It is true that when your client tells you the truth, he at first, and perhaps for a long while, will tell you other things also. But consider the case of a person in acute distress. How can any one but himself realize how much it hurts? The only way to make outsiders feel the extent of the disaster is to exaggerate the facts.

Now let us suppose that we have failed to gain the confidence of our client, and that he refuses consent to what we think necessary in the way of enquiry into his concerns; what should we do? There's clearly only one fair and just course to follow. We must decline the case. We simply are not in a position to conduct it so as to be of service to him. We must let him get along the best he can or apply elsewhere. But I believe such cases are rare; rarer than the old "unworthy" ones used to be in the classifications of our grandfathers. But to go on with a case under such circumstances, to pursue it through relatives, former employers, old neighbors, the society of a city of former residence etc. and let the unfortunate client find out all this later, is not only immoral; it is positively indecent.

And what is the good of it all if it is done? Can we be of service to a client whom we have so outraged? Not as I see it. If the client accepts some supposed benefit at our hands, after such treatment of him, he is probably thoroughly pauperized; at any rate we have gone a long way towards making him a pauper, we have helped to destroy his self-respect.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON

Croton-on-Hudson, N. Y.

Adults and Children

I FIND myself in basic agreement with Dr. Cabot's distinction between what seems to be an immediate and objective result and the permanent effect of the method of getting this result upon the character of the person concerned. It is in this field that I find my own lapses from truth to be most frequent and I believe in the last analysis not excusable. The question of veracity has to do not only with our social work, but with the whole field of relation between adults and children where most of us lie unblushingly and with destructive effect upon our later standing in the minds of the children concerned. It seems to me in this field as with clients, Dr. Cabot suggests the true objective in most cases, which I understand to be statements that will prove to be in harmony with the whole truth as soon as that is known, even if for sufficient reason the *whole truth* cannot be at first stated. Personally I do not see how we are going to build up an enduring foundation of social opinion and cooperative activity without using the truth any more than we can run railway trains and fly airships without using the foundation of unchanging natural law.

Especially obnoxious to me in the field of social work is a very frequent custom in children's courts of making threats to send children away to institutions or to carry out some other line of punishment which acts the judge or the probation officer have no intention of doing, but simply threaten in order to scare the child. Certain it is that in all of the relations between children and adults and between adults themselves, any discovery that they have been deliberately deceived tends to weaken their confidence in the deceiver.

HENRY W. THURSTON

New York School of Social Work

In General —

I ONCE undertook to discuss with a class the basis for truthfulness and the circumstances if any under which one is not obligated to disclose all the facts that may be in one's possession. Later returns from the class in a quiz indicated that the net impression received by the class from the discussion was that one should lie whenever possible. Since then I have refrained from discussion of cases except as a specific problem has arisen.

In general of course we cannot at the same time enjoy a person's confidence and not treat him in such a way as to maintain it. The difficult question I should say would be as to how far one wisely enters into obligations to one individual which may interfere with obligations to other individuals and to the public.

JAMES H. TUFTS

Dean of Faculties, University of Chicago

Black and White

THE Survey has asked me to repeat for it my discussion of Dr. Cabot's paper when given to the Buffalo Social Workers' Club. Let me register myself first as 90 per cent in cordial agreement with Dr. Cabot's views on veracity, even when radical; and next as about 10 per cent in opposition.

I agree entirely with his principles of medical veracity so far as I know them, and in the main with his views on social veracity, as I have said, although contrary to current procedure. On points of practice, however, I speak with diffidence for my personal experience has been in community work more than in case work.

I agree with him as to veracity in cases of mental trouble; and as to not visiting the relatives of an unmarried mother without her knowledge, and her consent also if their whereabouts were known only through her. I am disposed to agree with him that it is better to take notes with the client's knowledge although I have heretofore advised the opposite. I should like to see experiments in having clients present at district committee conferences; and I think I agree with him in no registration without the client's consent if there is reason to believe that the client would object seriously, though

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I would usually refuse aid unless that consent was given. As to recommendations, I agree that they should invariably be both veracious and candid, though I do not agree with his statement in Buffalo that we should write nothing in a recommendation that we would be unwilling to have seen by the person in question. I think also that he goes too far in saying that annual reports should not put their best foot forward by displaying successful cases only. Everyone knows that there must be failures also.

It was Dr. Cabot's climax that I seriously objected to. I followed my leader to the top, but instead of going over the top with him, disloyally led a revolt. "Master, go on, and I will follow thee, to the last gasp in truth," said old Adam to young Orlando. I gasped at the last gasp.

In closing he went so very far as to say that if an unmarried mother was living respectably, and chose to protect her name by calling herself "Mrs.," and he could not persuade her to do otherwise, he should feel it his duty to speak of her and to her as "Miss," and so betray her secret, rather than be guilty of unveracity. I opened the discussion by saying that in such a case I would say "Mrs." until I was black in the face rather than give her away.

I am against black lies always, but for white lies sometimes. I would not let a worthy, boresome friend know that he bored me; and if a poor woman with only one bonnet asked if I liked it I would "use the truth with scrupulous frugality."

Dr. Cabot's paper, however, is a most stimulating and needful tonic, and will do us all good. I hope he will continue to tell the truth and shame the devil, even if I have to play devil.

FREDERIC ALMY

Buffalo, N. Y.

DR. CABOT REPLIES

THE points which interest me most in these letters are:

1. Professor Tufts' terse and illuminating statement of the principle that "we cannot at the same time enjoy a person's confidence and not treat him so as to maintain it." All that I want to say about veracity in social work follows from this single proposition. You cannot eat your cake and have it too, deserve confidence and betray it.

2. Mr. Almy's assertion that my views on social veracity "are contrary to current social procedure." I should not have ventured to say so.

3. Mr. Almy's distinction between "white lies" and "black lies." I wonder if he can defend a definition of a "white lie" so as to escape the logic of Professor Tufts' sentence just quoted. I should say that any statement that violates the confidence which we have given people reason to have in us was a "black lie" and that no other statement was a lie at all. A lie breaks a promise spoken or implicit. All friendly or trustful relationships rest on such understandings. Sometimes the understanding is unmistakably clear, as when a witness is sworn in court. Sometimes it is vague. I take it that if on the witness stand Mr. Almy were asked about an unmarried mother who called herself "Mrs." he would give the facts as he knew them because he has definitely and publicly agreed to do so. Take a case where the understanding is somewhat less clear: suppose his brother asked, "Has he been married or not? Some doubts of it have reached me." Mr. Almy, I believe, would tell the truth. Suppose a social agency, aware that he was in a position to know the facts, asked him the same question. He would tell the truth, I believe. Suppose a distant, but responsible, relative of the girl asked. Again I think he would answer truthfully.

In all these cases the tacit but definite understanding between Mr. Almy and his interlocutor is supposed to be one of confidence in him and his veracity. To answer untruthfully would be betraying that confidence. In none of these cases would Mr. Almy hesitate to "give her away."

He doesn't believe in forcing the knowledge of her unmarried state on persons who are not expecting from him any such revelation or counting on him for it. No more do I.

There might remain persons regarding whom there is no clear certainty in his mind whether he has given them any

Bishop Brown's Bad Book

Bishop William Montgomery Brown has been officially summoned to appear before a Court of the Protestant Episcopal Church at Cleveland, Ohio, on May 27, 1924, to be tried for the twenty-three outrageous heresies embodied in his book entitled

Communism and Christianism

In reply to his summons Bishop Brown says in part: "My heresy does not consist in rejecting the theology of the Christian interpretation of redemptive religion, but in emptying it of its traditional supernaturalism and filling it with scientific naturalism. In this way I still hold to the Gods of the Old and New Testaments, but I empty them of their Mosaism and Paulinism and refill them with Darwinism and Marxism."

A copy of "Communism and Christianism," 224 pages, now in its 125th thousand, together with a copy of "Heresy," a magazine about the trial, revealing the bankruptcy of Orthodoxy, will be mailed for 25 cents.

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implicit promise to communicate his knowledge about the unmarried state of such a girl. Then Mr. Almy thinks he *might* well remain silent. So do I. Is there any substantial difference between us?

RICHARD C. CABOT
Harvard University

COMMUNICATIONS

Health a Sex Specialty?

TO THE EDITOR: Is there any genuine cause for lasting satisfaction in the recent decisions on labor laws for women by a Supreme Court so vigilant as ours to protect property always, first and last?

To some of us, whose main solicitude is for a triumphant progress of labor, these decisions do but seem to declare the error of legislating on lines of sex alone.

To see women with one hand deprived of a basic wage—which is certainly the very basic pre-requisite for health and with the other hand shut out from fields of paid work which are, as well as one can see, no worse than many others left open to them (but often better) on the plea of health, seems a malicious joke. When this exclusion process shall have gone very far, will not women find themselves securely legislated into an inferior industrial caste?

How vastly more rational, more common-sense, and more durably fundamental it would be to protect all youth horizontally instead of just certain groups of women laterally! As the latter process grows will it not be the fact that the only protected people will be the men of organized labor who are so nicely relieved of women's competition?

By the way: did any one ever examine the facts of what women's health and strength may come to when they are well fed and well housed? And I suppose you know of the studies made by New York physicians of the effect upon sterility of the male parent's overstrain and unhygienic conditions of life (including, perhaps, a non-minimum wage, not enough to eat, and too much work)? Oh for a good Labor Party to arise which would declare that health was not a sex specialty and that there should be no castes in labor but that all workers should unite to recreate the conditions of Labor.

LAVINIA L. DOCK
Fayetteville, Pa.

Work--Study--Play

TO THE EDITOR: Through the kindly offices of some admiring friend whose enthusiastic loyalty was greater than his knowledge of the writer's limitations, my "character was passed" in a recent paragraph in The Survey, even though to the detriment of the so-called "average mayor," or "state officeholder."

But I do not at all get the point in a later number about the close "resemblance between these work-study-play students and those found in regular schools (March 15, p. 695). Does this sarcastic reference grow out of long study and intimate observation of what is being done in the Gary Schools, or is it just a snap-judgment impression taken at random from some untoward incident or hostile criticism by some political or religious opponent?

In spite of the opposition of the Steel Corporation in the early days, and that opposition was definite and harmful, although they are now proud of their schools; in spite of the deliberate, malicious, and long-continued opposition of the Chicago Teachers' Federation and the other federations of that kind, as to the "Platoon" system as they call it; in spite of the oft-offered criticism that it is a scheme on the part of the Steel Corporation to turn out boys and girls fit chiefly for use in its mills, which is, of course, the wildest kind of long-haired propaganda, the furthest from the truth; in spite of the screaming and fanatical criticism by "The Menace" several years ago, which was, of all things, the most amusing to those of us who happen to know intimate details concerning the

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school plan here; in spite of the opposition of some who came along deliberately getting inside, to be able to bore from within; in spite of a dozen other things that might be enumerated, that certainly under ordinary circumstances would have been enough to wreck any kind of a school system, let alone wear out the patience of those who were trying to work out the problem, the Work-Study-Play System in Gary has come to be a remarkable success.

I use that word advisedly. From the standpoint of the ability of the child to fit into the life of the community after he is out of school; from the standpoint of the ability of the child to measure up to the work done by other students in the regular schools, colleges, and universities, after he leaves these schools; from the standpoint of what is more important, especially in view of the ability of the average student who comes out of these schools, to meet the issues of life, to measure up to challenges whether patriotic, civic, or otherwise; and even more from the standpoint of the balance, poise, resourcefulness, ability to handle himself or herself under difficulties, in fact from almost any possible angle that you can name, it strikes me after now sixteen years of intimate study and observation of the workings of the program, that it does do the most remarkable piece of citizenship building now done anywhere on so large a scale, due regard being had for costs.

Having had a brother, two sisters (two of whom entered college from these schools) and now a daughter in them, and knowing, as the head for years of our Associated Charities, and County Chairman of the Red Cross, of the social issues involved as well, I feel that I ought to know.

The race problem with nearly two thousand colored children, the polyglot psychology with over forty languages directly represented, the terrific pressure of rapidity of growth, and the competition of Chicago salaries, all have contributed to the task.

Nevertheless, more children stay into high school; they get more training in art; e. g., the best annual exhibition of contemporaneous artists, with two exceptions, in the whole state of Indiana, is held here; more shoe repairing is taught; a great number of students study music, e. g., over five hundred students are members of bands or orchestras; more adults go to night schools; and continuation schools; more people use the buildings all the week; more physical training and sound health work is done; the taxpayer gets much more for his school dollar, and the teacher (bless her!) does more for hers by far in Gary than in any other school system in proportion, that I have seen, and I have studied them more or less from Minneapolis to New Orleans, and from St. Louis to New York City. And "the half has not been told."

C. O. HOLMES

President State Conference Correction and Charities, of Indiana, president Indiana Tuberculosis Association, State Senator, president South Side Trust and Savings Bank

(The "innuendo" referred to by Mr. Holmes was one of those attempts to be facetious, which seems to have failed. If the reader will make a conscious effort to find the facetiousness in the remark, his effort will be (faintly) rewarded.—THE EDITOR.)

The New School

TO THE EDITOR: Dr. Hart's article on The Curriculum of the New School in The Survey of March 15, has seemed to many of us the best word that has been written on the subject! We hope he will continue to discuss the problem, thus helping to reveal and also to solve it.

GRACE M. LICHTEN

New York

Schools and the World We Live In

TO THE EDITOR: I do not know who your "J. K. H." may be, but I would like to personally compliment the writer of The New School and the Community. It is an excellent portrayal of the means used by certain schools of the "new" type to unfit children for the world they must live in, even if they do fit them for some kind of ideal world, which, when you come down to it, may not be so very ideal after all!

The Servants of Relief for Incurable Cancer

have got on well with their petitions for a large Fund to build a fireproof Rosary Hill Home at Hawthorne, Westchester County, N. Y., for destitute cancer cases, of all creeds and nationalities. $111,000.00 has been received in the last three years, and $59,000.00 has been expended in excavating, some building and furnishing of a first portion of the Home to hold 25 of the men and women already harbored in the old wooden Home; and $200,000.00 is needed to build the main fireproof Home for 100 persons. When it can be done depends upon the quick or slow response in donations of those who compassionate deplorable needs. Our first two large wards, with small rooms and kitchen, laundry and large well, are praised as a most cheerful and convenient beginning, on the fine hill adjacent to our present wooden house, occupied by our patients (numbering 45 or more at a time) for the last 23 years. All is warmly endorsed by doctors for the many windows and large spaces. For the peace and pleasure of these destitute invalids the piping for funds must go on, for no money is received from our poor; so do not, we implore, withhold the precious $1.00, nor the occasional meteor, a big sum, from a charity that cancer makes necessary today.

MOTHER M. ALPHONSA LATHROP, O.S.D.,
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Evening General Sessions Program

(Fifteen Subjects of Interest to All Social Workers)

1. Presidential Address: *"Public Protection of Children"*—Miss Grace Abbott
2. *"The Urge Forward"*—Right Honorable Sir George E. Foster
3. *"The Federation Movement Among Social Agencies in America"*—C. M. Bookman
4. *"The Correlation of Public and Private Social Service"*
5. *"Social Aspects of Farmers' Cooperation"*—Aaron Sapiro
6. *"The Farm Home"*—Rev. Edwin V. O'Hara
7. *"The Relation between Urban and Rural Social Work"*—E. C. Lindeman
8. Conference Sermon: *"The Coming Kingdom"*—Rev. W. A. Cameron
9. *"International Cooperation for Social Welfare"*—Miss Jane Addams, Dr. René Sand
10. *"Negro Migration and Its Effect on Family and Community Life in the North"*—Dr. George E. Haynes
11. *"Negro Migration and Its Effects on Family and Community Life in the South"*
12. *"Immigration Legislation and Its Administration as It Bears upon the Problem of Assimilation in the United States"*—W. W. Husband
13. *"Immigration Legislation and Its Administration as It Bears upon the Problem of Assimilation in Canada"*—W. J. Egan
14. *"Prohibition: The Problem of Enforcement from the Federal Standpoint"*—Mrs. Mabel Walker Willebrandt
15. *"Prohibition: The Problem of Enforcement from the State Standpoint"*

For all information write to

Wm. Hammond Parker, Gen'l. Sec'y.

National Conference of Social Work

25 E. Ninth Street Cincinnati, Ohio

Perhaps for the failings of the "New Schools" we should blame a very false and dangerous part of modern pseudo-psychology, which declares that all "repression" is harmful! Happiness and success depend so completely on the repression of anti-social impulses that one marvels it is not obvious that this theory can be developed only by solitary folk living in caves.

Anyway, give my regards to "J. K. H."

Chas. K. Taylor

The Outlook, New York

Mental Clinics in South Carolina

To the Editor: In your issue of April 15 on p. 109 there appears the announcement that the first mental hygiene clinic in the Carolinas was opened in Asheville, N. C., in March under the direction of Dr. Louis Bisch, formerly lecturer at Columbia, and psychologist of the New York City police department.

In order that the record may be kept straight I am sending you one of our annual reports for 1923 and would respectfully call your attention to the following paragraph:

> Under the auspices of the City Board of Health and the Associated Charities of Columbia a mental clinic was established on January 24. This clinic is held on every Thursday afternoon by some member of the staff at which time examinations are made of nervous and mental troubles, advice given and proper treatment instituted. It has been of great value to the people of the city and county and the hospital is greatly indebted to Miss Margaret Laing of the Associated Charities for her interest and the service she has rendered in its conduct.

On January 31 of this year the second clinic was opened at Greenville, S. C., and on March 14 another one at Spartanburg. I might also add that the hospital conducted a mental clinic in 1922 at the hospital.

C. F. Williams, M.D.

Superintendent, South Carolina State Hospital, Columbia, S. C.

Dental Clinics in Schools

(*Continued from page 212*)

Preventive dentistry should be available to all children of school and pre-school age, in opinion of this report, on the same terms as public education. Its cost is less than 5 per cent of the usual per capita cost of school education, and it is a measure which will make more efficient the other 95 per cent of the expenditure. Experience indicates the economy of the school clinic for prophylactic work for children—since the use of the schools avoids problems of plant and equipment, of transportation, and of the making and keeping of appointments, found to be a serious consideration in children's clinics under other auspices. It also makes possible a coordination of the dental program with the general question of health education which makes for its most effective use. While prophylactic dental work for children should be localized in the schools or elsewhere, it is essential that the dental work itself be under centralized professional supervision. Curative work, on the other hand, can be performed most economically in centralized institutions, which will serve large units of the population, with 250,000 as a probable maximum, though under congested city conditions, it might be greater.

The study of dental clinics just completed in New York City shows that most non-municipal dental clinics charge stated fees, which usually are lower than cost, and which are remitted when the patient is unable to pay. For dental care other than prophylaxis a charge for materials, etc., is generally made in the clinics, which also must be remitted at need. The dental profession, as its own members have indicated through the resolutions of the New York Oral Hygiene Committee, have everything to gain by a general overhauling and rearranging of existing facilities to obtain their maximum utilization, since at present, the committee recognizes dental facilities are strikingly inadequate in proportion to the need of them for the maintenance of health, comfort and working efficiency.

M. R.

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Among the courses available to students attending the Summer Institute, July 7th to August 16th, are the following:

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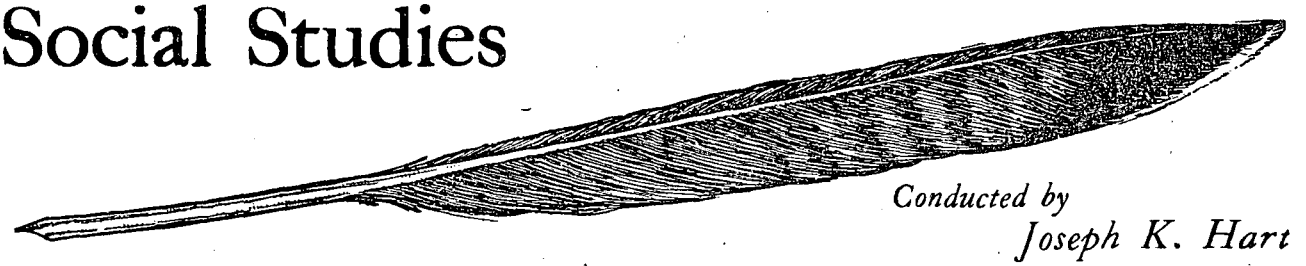
Social Studies



Conducted by
Joseph K. Hart

Our Group and Our Culture

WE live in, and by means of, and for our groups. This fact explains many things, as we have seen in these studies. More than any other fact, it explains the character and quality of our culture.

All cultures were originally group cultures; they are, probably, little more than group cultures, to this day. Primitive group life was early filled up with patterns. The individual could not be trusted: he had to have patterns of action, patterns of feeling and emotion, patterns of such intellection as was permissible. These patterns eventually covered all phases of the group life: its industry, its civic organization, its relationships to strange and alien groups, its morality, its sex relationships, its religious observances, its handling of the young. All its past was molded and remolded to conformity with these patterns; all its future was envisaged as but "copying fair the past." It protected this culture from all contaminations from without; it transmitted it as nearly unchanged as was possible to the young as their assurance of a worthy future.

All primitive groups were compelled, now and again, to come to terms with neighboring groups. Sometimes, these terms were "war to the death"; sometimes, peace by agreement. When two neighboring cultures are not too diverse, toleration is possible. If the cultures are similar in important respects, a legend of kinship, dating from some mythical ancestor, may grow up, changing toleration into brotherhood. This is particularly possible if the outer marks of group life are similar: if the groups have a like color; similar languages; or manners, customs and ceremonials with some common elements.

However the result may have been achieved, humanity, at the dawn of "history," was largely divided into certain great culture groups, which were distinguished from each other partly by color, partly by language, partly by customs and institutions. Some of these distinctions had become identified with nature. The famous "Curse and Blessing of Noah" (See Genesis, 9:25) illustrates the bitter form of these early distinctions.

THE net result of the centuries of cultural warfare, since the beginnings, has been the production of fixed beliefs, in practically all peoples, of the cultural superiority of "our group." To the Jews, all other races were "gentiles," that is, groups without ancestry. To the Greek, all other races were "barbarians." To the Christians, all non-Christians were "pagans," that is, crude peasants from the wild country. To the city Christian, all others were "heathen," that is, dwellers on the heath. To the Chinese, China was the "Middle Kingdom," around which all other lands lay on as on a fringe. To the "good American," America is being ruined by "dagoes," "polacks," "greasers" and their innumerable like. For a century, at least, the self-sacrificing "white man" has been carrying the "burden" of the world.

In this "war of cultures" three paths are open. "Our group" can go in for a war of extermination against all other groups. "We" can consider our culture the ultimate of culture: a Kultur; and we can wage a holy war against all else. This program, often tried, has not been conspicuously successful—in the long view.

As a second plan, "we" can try to destroy all other cultures and impose our culture upon other groups. That is, we can "ize" these other groups. (In America "we" call it American-ize). We can attempt to strip them of everything distinctive of their racial, national, cultural past, and dress them in cultural clothes of our own manufacture. We are not good tailors: we scarcely understand "clothes" at all; but we hold that a badly-dressed American makes a better neighbor than a well-dressed alien. This program is not wholly American: it may be found almost everywhere; but nowhere more devotedly than by certain types of Americans. The results are not always desirable, however. "Izing" grows more ruthless as it proceeds: *vide,* the Ku Klux Klan.

THERE is a third pathway; or, at least, a third pathway might be found—if we were not so fully committed to our group attitudes and cultures. This third pathway is not inconsistent with political nationality; but it will be promoted by the growth of international accord. This third way may be called Cultural Pluralism. If we were, as we fondly imagine, logical creatures, we should be able to envisage a world in which many sorts of culture groups could live side by side, with mutual respect and advantage, learning from one another and teaching one another in the ways of understanding, justice and peace. Diversity of culture makes a much more interesting world than does monotony of culture. Some day we shall begin to appreciate this fact. The Swiss and the British (of many shades and cultures) find it not impossible for individuals of most diverse characteristics to live together in the same land, under the same flag, even in the same city, with mutual respect and advantage, learning from one another and teaching one another in the ways of understanding, justice and peace.

BUT we humans are not logical. We are still paying interest upon the investment of the primitive group in its safety: our inheritance of that primitive psychology expresses itself in militaristic forays abroad, in cultural intolerance at home. In these respects, we are not "modern": we are as primitive as the Bushman. We excel the Bushman in one respect, only: we have armed our belligerency and intolerance with weapons unknown to him.

The present renaissance of this cultural intolerance is not a mark of democratic progress. We find here the gravest defect of our so-called intelligence. We seem not able to accept the joys and enrichments that inhere in diversity of cultures. We know only fear of the different and irritation in the presence of the variant. Everything not our own seems so unreasonable as to be either foolish or, what is more likely, sinister. If the too-familiar breeds contempt, the too-unfamiliar arouses alarm.

But mind is plastic. A hint may be all that is needed to change the direction of our attitudes, and to bring us to share in that "far-off, divine event," when Humanity, diversely rich, shall have become "our group."

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Our Social Institutions
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XVI. Problems of the Future

The world is not finished. The work is not all done. Democracy is still largely of the future. Human nature is still far from being completely explored. Human society is still imperfect. The motives of men are still but dimly understood. The future is a challenge to every inquiring mind and to every adventuresome spirit.

There is plenty of room for pioneers. Not so much, any more, on the old frontiers of geography, battling with the wilderness of nature for freedom, but on the new frontiers of social organization and reconstruction. Here there is real work to be done. Here are some "old settlers," belonging to outgrown ages, who still claim the right to do as they please with "their own property." Here, on the other hand, are eager prospectors, who would set fire to this tangle of old days, burn up everything and "build the future of the ruins." Here are many unsettled boundaries of thought and feeling: here are great problems! What are some of them?

1. Provincialism and International-Mindedness

• Is America part of the world? Should it be? Can we become world-citizens without ceasing to be Americans?

2. Government

• Is government something outside the people? Above the people? Should people control their own government? Can this ever be done? How?

3. Communication and World Information

• Is knowledge of world happenings of any importance? Who should know these things? Are people getting the facts?

4. Education, Recreation and Beauty

• Who should be educated? Who is being educated? What is this education? Does it include capacity to use leisure wisely? Does it develop love of beauty? Does education ever apply itself to practical things, like making a decent and a beautiful world?

5. Conservation of Our Resources

• Americans sometimes almost boast of their wastefulness. Are our resources unlimited? Is it foolish to be thoughtful? Have we the right to waste our natural wealth indefinitely?

6. The More Just Distribution of Wealth

• Does everyone "get what is coming to him," today? Are present economic and legal conditions any advance over those of Europe? Over those of Europe in 1824? In 1524? Is a more equitable system of wealth distribution possible? Where would such a system be likely to take us?

7. Community Organization

• How have American communities come into existence? Has your community ever been studied by any thoughtful group or individual? Has your community any special advantages? Any special disadvantages? Any special defects? Have you any sort of plan for the further development of your community?

8. The Development of Democracy

• Does America still believe in democracy? Does your community? What is democracy? Have we found out the final answer to that question? What is lacking in our democracy? Have we the knowledge? Have we the ideals? Have we the will and the courage?

References:

James H. Tufts, Our Democracy. Henry Holt and Co.

Questions on Current Issues

Statesmanship and Psychology

The first lesson in (theoretical) civics we learned in the little red school house was that "the people" are always likely to turn into a "mob," and smash something; that the "founding fathers" had wisely foreseen this, and had set up a series of governmental instruments by which "the mob" could always be forestalled; that the Senate was (next after the Supreme Court) the most dependable of instruments for this purpose; and that, whatever storms of passion might rage in "the people," the Senate would be forever, dignifiedly, on the job.

The first lesson in the "psychology of intelligence" taught us by the protagonists of the "Nordic Complex" was that children and aliens are ruled by passions, but that Nordics live and move and have their being in intelligence.

Well, the best example of "the mob" we have had in America since 1918 was given in the Senate a few weeks ago, when the diplomacy of twenty years was blown away in a rage; and, on that same occasion, "Nordic intelligence" sank to the level of whatever passion is anywhere in the world. It was not an admirable exhibition. But it would be worth all it cost if it served to destroy the myths stated above; the myths, namely, that "senators" are free from the instincts of "the people," that is, "the mob"; and that "Nordics" are more intelligent than children and aliens. Must "statesmanship" rest forever on myths? Can't psychology find some dependable facts with which to gamble?

1. Statesmanship

• What is a statesman? When a provincial citizen is elected to Congress, what happens to his mentality? Was he elected because of his intelligence? After he is elected, does he live an intelligent life? Does the atmosphere of Washington tend to make him more intelligent? Does his mind grow, or does it just expand? And if it expands, what fills in the vacant spaces? Could a statesman be recognized by any significant characteristics in a general crowd? How does a statesman really differ from other people?

2. Psychology

• What is psychology? How many different kinds of psychology are there in the world? How many of these are reliable? What does psychology deal with: facts, or hopes? When a psychologist starts to study or to write, should he have his mind made up in advance as to where he is going to come out? Should psychology teach us new things; or should it enable us to prove what we already know? Does the psychologist really know anything; or does he just hope for some "far-off divine event" and use his psychology to help bring that event into reality? Does the fact that psychology teaches us how large a part wishes play in our mental life keep the psychologist from relying upon wishes? Does the psychologist have more or fewer wishes than other people? What are the characteristics of a psychologist? How does he differ from other people?

Should statesmen take lessons from psychologists? Would some knowledge of psychology make them better or worse statesmen? What basis have we in psychology for the doctrine of "Nordic supremacy"? What basis in history? Was Moses a Nordic? Was Confucius? Was Pericles? Socrates? Julius Caesar? How can you account for the survival of the world prior to the coming of the Nordics?

References:

Pages 207, 210.

The books mentioned on this page may be obtained through The Survey Book Department.

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AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. To promote a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education; to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases; to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

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Department of Immigrant Aid—799 Broadway. Mrs. S. J. Rosensohn, chairman. For the protection and education of immigrant women and girls.

COUNCIL OF WOMEN FOR HOME MISSIONS—156 Fifth Avenue, New York. Organized in 1908; 20 constituent Protestant national women's mission boards. Florence E. Quinlan, exec. sec'y. Committee on Farm and Cannery Migrants, Summer Service for College Students, Laura H. Parker, exec. supervisor.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA—Constituted by 30 Protestant denominations. Rev. Chas. S. Macfarland, Rev. S. M. Cavert, gen'l sec'ys; 105 E. 22nd Street, New York.

Commission on the Church and Social Service—Rev. Worth M. Tippy, exec. sec'y; Rev. F. Ernest Johnson, research, sec'y; Agnes H. Campbell, research ass't; Inez M. Cavert, librarian.

HAMPTON INSTITUTE—Trains Negro and Indian youth for community service. Advanced courses: agriculture, builders, business, home-economics, normal. Publishes "Southern Workman" and free material on Negro problems. J. E. Gregg, principal.

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—First appointed 1854, located New York City 1866, incorporated 1883. Headquarters office, 347 Madison Ave., New York City, N. Y. Tel. Vanderbilt 1200. Branch offices, Chicago, Atlanta, Denver. Chairman, James M. Speers; Treasurer, B. H. Fancher; General Sec'y, John R. Mott. The Committee maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries for service in the interests of the Young Men's Christian Associations at home and abroad.

JOINT COMMITTEE ON METHODS OF PREVENTING DELINQUENCY—Graham Romeyn Taylor, executive director, 50 East 42d Street, New York. To promote the adoption of sound methods in this field, with particular reference to psychiatric clinics, visiting teacher work, and training for these and similar services; to conduct related studies, education and publication; and to interpret the work of the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Delinquency.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF CIVIC SECRETARIES—Walter T. Arndt, president, New York; Robert E. Tracy, secretary, 313 South Broad Street, Philadelphia. Purpose—To provide contact and interchange of ideas and information among professional secretaries of civic organizations. Annual meeting held with National Municipal League.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMENS CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mabel Cratty, general secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City. This organization maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,034 local Y. W. C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born, Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 159 American secretaries at work in 49 centers in the Orient, Latin America and Europe.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Owen R. Lovejoy sec'y: 215 Fourth Avenue, New York. Industrial, agricultural investigations. Works for improved laws and administration children's codes. Studies health, schools, recreation, dependency, delinquency, etc. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10. $25 and $100; includes monthly bulletin, "The American Child."

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC.—Chas. F. Powlison, gen. sec'y; 70 Fifth Ave., New York. Originates and publishes exhibit material which visualizes the principles and conditions affecting the health, well being and education of children. Cooperates with educators, public health agencies, and all child welfare groups in community, city or state-wide service through exhibits, child welfare campaigns, etc.

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE—Dr. William H. Welch, pres.; Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, med. dir.; Dr. Clarence J. D'Alton, executive assistant; Clifford W. Beers, sec'y; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. Pamphlets on mental hygiene, nervous and mental disorders, feeble-mindedness, epilepsy, inebriety, criminology, psychiatric social service, backward children, surveys, state societies. "Mental Hygiene," quarterly, $3.00 a year; "Mental Hygiene Bulletin," monthly, $ .25 a year.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Grace Abbott, president, Washington, D. C.; W. H. Farker, secretary, 25 East Ninth Street, Cincinnati, Ohio. The Conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-first annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Toronto, Canada, June 25th to July 2nd, 1924. Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, managing director; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, secretary; 130 East 22nd St., New York. Objects: To furnish information, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, personal service for local organizations and legislation, publish literature of movement—samples free, quantities at cost. Includes New York State Committee.

NATIONAL FEDERATION OF SETTLEMENTS—Robert A. Woods, sec'y; 20 Union Park, Boston. Develops broad forms of comparative study and concerted action in city, state and nation, for meeting the fundamental problems disclosed by settlement work, seek the higher and more democratic organization of neighborhood life.

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NATIONAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION SERVICE—315 Fourth Avenue, New York, N. Y. To obtain progressive legislation for physical education. Established at the request of a committee created by the United States Bureau of Education; 35 national organizations cooperating. Maintained by the Playground and Recreation Association of America.

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NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE—For social service among Negroes. L. Hollingsworth Wood, pres.; Eugene Kinckle Jones, exec. sec'y; 127 E. 23rd St., New York. Establishes committees of white and colored people to work out community problems. Trains Negro social workers. Publishes "Opportunity"—a "journal of Negro life."

NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE—Mrs. Raymond Robins, honorary president; Mrs. Maud Swartz, president; 311 South Ashland Blvd., Chicago, Ill. Stands for self-government in the work shop through organization and also for the enactment of protective legislation. Information given.

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RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION—For the Improvement of Living Conditions—John M. Glenn, dir.; 130 E. 22nd St., New York. Departments: Charity Organization, Child-Helping, Industrial Studies, Library, Recreation, Remedial Loans, Statistics, Surveys and Exhibits. The publications of the Russell Sage Foundation offer to the public in practical and inexpensive form some of the most important results of its work. Catalogue sent upon request.

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ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL LABOR OFFICIALS OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA: Annual Convention: Chicago, Illinois. May 19-23. Chairman, Geo. B. Arnold.

CLEVELAND COMMUNITY WELFARE ANNUAL CONFERENCE: Cleveland. May 14-16. Director, Rowland Haynes, Cleveland Welfare Federation, Electric Bldg., Cleveland, Ohio.

VIRGINIA STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORKERS: Petersburg. May 18, 19, 20.

AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION: Annual Conference. Chicago. May 19-23. Sec'y, Dr. Olin West, 535 N. Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.

CALIFORNIA STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Long Beach. May 25-29. Sec'y, Miss Anita Eldridge, 436 O'Farrell St., San Francisco.

NORTH CAROLINA STATE NURSES ASSN: Annual Meeting. Winston-Salem, N. C. May 27, 28, 29. Sec'y, Miss Edna L. Heinzerling, N. C. Baptist Hospital, Winston-Salem.

VIRGINIA STATE NURSES ASSN: Annual Meeting. Roanoke, Va. May 27, 28, 29. Sec'y, Blanche F. Webb, R.N., 300 W. York St., Norfolk, Va.

EMPLOYED OFFICERS OF THE Y. M. C. A., TRIENNIAL CONVENTION: Blue Ridge, N. C. May 27-30. J. W. Pontius, Y. M. C. A., Columbus, Ohio.

THE AMERICAN ASSN. FOR THE STUDY OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED: Washington, D. C. May 30-June 2. Sec'y, Dr. B. W. Baker, Laconia, N. H.

OREGON STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Portland. May 30-June 1. Ex. Sec'y, Miss Alita Brownlee, Madison Bldg., Portland, Oregon.

NATIONAL FEDERATION OF DAY NURSERIES: Toronto, Can. May 31-July 1. Ex. Sec'y, Miss H. M. Sears, 289 4th Ave., N. Y. City.

BOY'S CLUB FEDERATION: Pittsburgh, Pa. June 2-5. Sec'y. C. J. Atkinson, 3037 Grand Central Terminal Bldg., N. Y. City.

WISCONSIN CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Biennial State Meeting. Green Bay. June 3-5. Ex. Sec'y. Aubrey Williams, University Extension Bldg., Madison, Wis.

AMERICAN PSYCHIATRIC ASSOCIATION: Atlantic City. June 3-6. Sec'y, Dr. C. F. Haviland, Drawer 18, Capitol Sta., Albany, N. Y.

GENERAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS: Los Angeles, Calif. June 3-13. Corresponding Sec'y, Mrs. S. H. Godfrey, 1766 Girard Ave., S. Minneapolis, Minn.

NATIONAL LEAGUE FOR NURSING EDUCATION: Detroit. June 16-21. Sec'y, Miss Ada Belle McCleery, Evanston Hospital, Evanston, Ill.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING: Detroit, June 16-21. Director, Miss Anne Stevens, 370 Seventh Ave., N. Y. City.

NATIONAL LEAGUE OF GIRLS' CLUBS: Smith College, Northampton, Mass. June 18-22. Educational Sec'y, Miss Mary T. Ely, 472 W. 24th St., N. Y. City.

THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF JEWISH SOCIAL SERVICE: Toronto, Ont., Canada. Sec'y, Sam'l A. Goldsmith, Room 1806, 114—5th Ave., N. Y. City.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF HOSPITAL SOCIAL WORKERS: Toronto, Can. June 26-July 2. Sec'y, Miss Lena R. Waters, Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, Md.

NATIONAL EDUCATION CONVENTION: Washington, D. C. June 29-July 5. Sec'y, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Toronto, Canada. June 25-July 2. Sec'y, Wm. Hammond Parker, 25 E. 9th St., Cincinnati, Ohio.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR ADVANCEMENT OF COLORED PEOPLE, ANNUAL CONFERENCE: Philadelphia. June 25-July 2. Sec'y, Walter White, 69 Fifth Ave., N. Y. City.

NATIONAL FEDERATION OF SETTLEMENTS: Toronto. June 26-29. Sec'y, Robert A. Woods, 20 Union Park, Boston, Mass.

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WANTED: Executive secretary for County Tuberculsis Association. Also Nurse for rural county work in middle-west. Salary $150.00 a month. 4824 SURVEY.

WANTED: Neighborhood nutrition and health worker in large eastern city. One who has a knowledge of Yiddish preferred. 4823 SURVEY.

WANTED: By child placing agency in Connecticut, experienced field worker. State training, experience, references, and salary expected. 4820 SURVEY.

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WORKER capable of directing girls' department of Philadelphia Settlement. State age, education and experience. 4773 SURVEY.

WANTED: **In Eastern city,** Jewish case work supervisor, capable of training workers and able to make effective community contacts. 4694 SURVEY.

WANTED: Superintendent for Jewish Home at Scranton, Pa., caring for aged and orphaned, with capacity of 40 inmates. Applicant to state in own hand writing, age, social condition, education, experience, salary expected (complete maintenance given here), references, attitude towards Mosaic Dietary laws. Must go on duty no later than June first. 4835 SURVEY.

WORKERS WANTED

WANTED: Jewish, Yiddish speaking, trained nurse as Assistant to Head Worker in social service office. References and experience required. Write to Social Service Department, Free and Central Synagogues, 40 West 68th Street, New York.

YIDDISH speaking, graduate nurse wanted to take charge of summer camp for mothers and children in mid-western city for months July and August; capacity fifty. State experience, qualifications and salary expected. 4834 SURVEY.

WANTED: In Pittsburgh, case worker (Jewess preferred) for girls. State age, education, training, experience, salary desired. Give references. 4828 SURVEY.

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TEACHERS wanted for public and private schools, colleges and universities. Education Service, Steger Building, Chicago; Southern Building, Washington; 1254 Amsterdam Ave., New York.

SITUATIONS WANTED

SUPERINTENDENT and Matron, would like position in Industrial Farm School, Orphan Asylum, or Boys Home; thoroughly trained by years of experience and competent to reclaim the boy, who is drifting to a life of crime. Best of references. 4818 SURVEY.

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IN ITS efforts to strike at the underlying causes of distress among the poor, the New York A. I. C. P. has conducted a series of health and educational experiments in various districts of New York City. The results of these, as well as some intensive experiments in its more regular activities, have been so interesting that it has been decided to issue them in report form, at the actual cost of printing and mailing, **(25 cents per copy; 25 or more, 20c per copy; 100 or more, 15c per copy; entire series, $1.75).** Each report has been submitted to a group of specialists before publication and has been presented in a manner which will make a strong appeal to everyone interested in public health, community organization, education, and other branches of social work. A brief description of each report appears below.

1. The Health of a Neighborhood

By JOHN C. GEBHART

Of unusual interest to students of neighborhood and health problems. Results of intensive health demonstrations by the A. I. C. P. in the Mulberry District of lower east side, New York. Explains how material was gathered, the shifting population, the amount of sickness prevalent at all times and other data of value.

2. Adapting Nutrition Work to a Child Health Program

By LUCY H. GILLETT

A report on how the A. I. C. P. deals with the problem of defective nutrition among children. The nutrition class method for school children, home visiting for children of pre-school age, special educational work with groups of older girls and mothers, popular health education through schools and other agencies. These are some of the subjects covered, together with estimated cost of methods. The report includes a series of health talks and projects for teaching health to children.

3. The Growth and Development of Italian Children

By JOHN C. GEBHART

Deals with the problem of normal growth and development of children. An intensive study of the weights and statures of 4,000 Italian children in a congested district of New York City, as compared with other dominant racial and social types. This study also includes comparative analyses of dentition, seasonal variations in growth and other factors bearing on the problem.

4. Do Height and Weight Tables Identify Undernourished Children?

A practical application of the material covered in Report No. 3, to the problem of degree to which arbitrary height and weight standards can be exclusively relied upon as a method for selecting undernourished children. This report is the result of a joint study of the problem by John C. Gebhart, Director Department of Social Welfare, of the A. I. C. P., Louis I. Dublin, Statistician, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., and Dr. L. C. Schroeder, associate professor of pediatrics, Cornell Medical College.

5. Protecting the Mother and Child

Deals with two important problems. First, a survey of five years' experience in carrying on a prenatal program. The second section deals with a child health program conducted in the Mulberry District over a period of six years. A large part of the report is devoted to an actual experience in bringing children of pre-school age under care and observation.

6. Community Oral Hygiene

Covers a four year program of oral hygiene in a restricted district, in which all the children of the first five grades of school have been included. Deals with periodic prophylactic cleanings, extractions, fillings and special treatment to arrest decay. Results of the work have been carefully studied and present a convincing exhibit of the improvement which can be obtained for a given expenditure of time and money.

7. Health Work for Mothers in a Colored District

Since 1917 the A. I. C. P. has conducted a prenatal service for colored mothers in a district where the death rate of mothers and children was alarmingly high. The program provides a definite tie-up of venereal disease follow-up and a pre-natal nursing service. The report is a strong argument for the necessity of including a venereal disease campaign with pre-natal service.

8. Tuberculosis, a Family Problem

By JOHN C. GEBHART

A survey of ten years' experience with the Home Hospital, showing results obtainable by housing the tuberculous patient with his family in decent living quarters under constant medical and nursing supervision. The report covers the social as well as the health aspects of this now famous experiment.

9. When Fathers Drop Out

By WILLIAM H. MATTHEWS

A report on the results of nine years' experience of the A. I. C. P. in granting monthly allowances to widowed mothers with children not included in the New York Widow's Pension Act. Includes histories of cases, incomes, budgets, medical data, education and all other important factors of this type of social service. An intensely human document.

New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor

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